The Outlook

Vol. 76 February 27, 1904 No. 9

CONTENTS

THE WEEK:

The War in the East 479
The Sinews of War 480
Secretary Hay's Note 481
The Russian Censorship 481
The English Ministry 483
Senator Hanna 483
Fair Play and the Indians 484
Ex-President Cleveland's Platform 484
Woman Suffrage Extolled 485
Local Option Under Fire 486
Mayor McClellan 486
Law Instead of Lynching 487
Berea College 488
The Distribution of Immigrants 489
Wage-Earners and Christian Associations 489
Richard Strauss and His Music 490
San Domingo 490

EDITORIALS:

The War in the East: George Kennan as Correspondent 491
Letters to a Minister: The Authority of the Preacher—I 491
A Lenten Thought: Finding God 493
President Eliot on the Labor Problem 494
The Spectator 496

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES:

Indian Lands and Fair Play 498
By George Kennan

Studies in Colonial Administration. VI.—The Federated Malay States 502
By Alleyne Ireland

Old Virginia Society 507
By Emilie W. McVea

How Books Achieve Circulation 512
By George P. Brett

London's Living-In System 515
By Mary R. Cranston

To the Watch (Poem) 518
By Arnold Townsend

The Next Step Toward International Honesty 519

BOOKS AND AUTHORS:

The Victorian Age 520
Books of the Week 522
CORRESPONDENCE 527

The Outlook is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The first issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

Price.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

Postage is Prepaid by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila Samoa, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add $1.56 for postage.

Change of Address.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

Discontinuances.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of the paper discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

How to Remit.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

Letters should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, 1436 Marquette Building **287 Fourth Avenue, New York**

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The Outlook

Published Weekly

Vol. 76 February 27, 1904 No. 9

The War in the East: At Sea

While last week's war news contained no such thrilling accounts of sea battles as those of the previous week at Port Arthur and Chemulpho, events make it increasingly evident that Japan now possesses a preponderance of sea power over Russia, and that this consists not alone in superiority in the number and power of war vessels, but arises also from the fact that Russia's war forces are divided and ill placed. In fact, the situation in large measure confirms the opinion expressed by a writer in an English review before the outbreak of the war, that Russia might as well dock her war vessels in European harbors, leave them there in safety until the end of the war, and not attempt to draw from their use a possible benefit. At Port Arthur the Russian fleet lies partly shattered, and no longer strong enough to emerge and engage a superior Japanese force; on Sunday of last week for the second time the Japanese torpedo-boats attacked the Russian ships in the outer harbor; the results are still in doubt, though the Japanese believe that in the dense fog they sank one transport and one war vessel, perhaps the Boyarin, which the Russians say was blown up by one of their own mines, although it is possible that instead the Bayan, one of Russia's finest cruisers, may have been destroyed by the Japanese, and the Boyarin destroyed by the mine; at all events, it is certain that in the two attacks and through accidents at least half a dozen Russian vessels have been incapacitated for sea battles, although some of them may still be useful for harbor defense. Turning to the Russian squadron which, after war began, broke its way out from the partly ice-bound harbor of Vladivostok, nothing was heard from it last week; these four cruisers are plainly too weak a force to engage a strong Japanese fleet, or to force their way through the straits between Korea and Japan to join the ships at Port Arthur; possibly they have returned to Vladivostok; possibly they may harry some of the towns of the Japanese islands; but as a serious factor in the naval war the squadron is not formidable. As to the small Russian naval force which has passed through the Suez Canal, it is now at a French port near the southern end of the Red Sea. It will be interesting to note whether France allows these ships to do more than take on coal enough to carry them to the nearest Russian port, as the rules of international law provide; even if the ships sail to the seat of war, they will be in great danger of capture, and a recent despatch declares that they have been ordered back to Europe. Repeated rumors of the despatch of Russia's Baltic fleet to the East still lack confirmation. Meanwhile, the Japanese naval force has been increased by the arrival of the two ships purchased from Argentine, the Niasin and the Kasaga. Tokyo advices declare positively that Japan has not yet lost a ship or had one seriously injured; and the Russian claims that a Japanese cruiser was sunk at Chemulpho and that torpedo-boats were destroyed at Port Arthur give no names and are not well established. The exact disposition of the Japanese fleet is carefully kept a secret, but evidently it is so divided as to hold in check either of the Russian naval forces above described, and at the same time to convoy Japanese troops as they are moved to the field of hostilities. It is reported that Russia has sent out Vice-Admiral Makarov to take the chief

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command of her naval forces in the East.

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The War in the East: On Land

But the superiority of Japan at sea by no means implies that the war will be a short one, or that its issue is already indicated. On the contrary, Russia's main dependence must be on her army, and it is stated that before long she will have a force of 400,000 men available for the campaigns in Manchuria and Korea. The statement that the town of Harbin is to be the Russian base of operations must not, we take it, be interpreted to mean that Port Arthur is to be abandoned, or that the line of railway running north from Port Arthur to Harbin through Mukden is not to be defended; while it is certain that the northern part of Korea, bounded by the Yalu River, will be the scene of important field operations. But Harbin is clearly the natural and inevitable base and center of Russian operations. It is the point where the main Siberian railway, the sole line of communication with Russia, branches, one section going south to Mukden, Niuchuang, and Port Arthur, the other nearly east to Vladivostok. Viceroy Alexiev will therefore make Harbin his headquarters, and from it, as a base of stores and center of operations, strengthen his advance or defense as the case may be, whether on the line toward Port Arthur or in the other direction. The Japanese army movements have been managed with great secrecy. It is known that a large force of Russians is close to the Yalu River, and that it has occupied Wiju, an important town on the Korean side of the river. It has even been asserted that the Russians have gone as far south as Pingyang and have found no Japanese force there. This seems doubtful, or, if true, remarkable, and suggestive of some explanation not now evident. At all events, the Japanese have a large force at or near Seoul, the capital of Korea, and last week three army divisions (thirty-six thousand men) sailed in transports from Japan, their destination being still, as we write, not certainly known. They may have gone to the vicinity of the Yalu River, or they may have been landed north of Port Arthur, or on the western side of the Liaotung Gulf, for the purpose, in the first place, of cutting off Port Arthur from the Russian line of communication, and, in the second, of cutting the railway between Niuchuang and Peking and advancing toward Mukden from that point. Other Japanese troops have probably landed at Wonsan, on Korea's eastern coast. General Kuropatkin, the Russian Minister of War, has been appointed supreme commander of the Russian land forces, and, as we note above, a new commander-in-chief of the navy has been appointed. It seems probable, therefore, that Viceroy Alexiev's powers are to be hereafter chiefly civil. Possibly this may denote dissatisfaction with the unready condition of the Russians at the opening of the war—on the night of the attack on Port Arthur it is said that half of the Russian officers were in town celebrating the Viceroy's birthday, and the fleet was absolutely unprepared for attack, although war was imminent.

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Sinews of War

Although Russia, in the present conflict with Japan, has an immense preponderance of military forces, Americans are apt to forget the extreme difficulty of placing and maintaining a great Russian force in Manchuria. Vladivostok is farther from Moscow than is San Francisco from Boston, and the field of operations is connected with the base of supplies by a single-track railway of immense length, not yet wholly complete, very hastily built, interrupted by a lake over which there is a ferry of more than twenty miles, with a running capacity not exceeding eighteen or twenty miles an hour, through a very thinly inhabited section of country, and with constant danger of interruptions by skillful enemies perfectly posted in regard to the location and condition of the road in all parts. It will be an immense undertaking to support three hundred thousand men over this road. In the opinion of a good many military experts in Europe, 250,000 men represents the largest army which Russia can properly support in

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Manchuria. The financial centers of Europe have been a good deal disturbed by the possibility of heavy drafts by both Russia and Japan in order to carry on the war. So far, neither country has shown any inclination to draw upon Europe. Japan intends to float a war loan of about $50,000,000 at home, and Russia has begun by issuing treasury notes to the extent of $25,000,000. During the Chinese war, nine years ago, Japan astonished the financial world by raising about $112,000,000 by loans absorbed at home and by taxation. The Russian Government, among other resources, has over $500,000,000 in gold and bank notes in reserve; so that, although the financial condition of the country is anything but sound, as Mr. Kennan pointed out in The Outlook several weeks ago, the sinews of war for the immediate future are amply supplied.

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Secretary Hay's Note

The replies to Secretary Hay's note on China, published last week in The Outlook, indicate that all the Powers, including Russia, Japan, and China, have welcomed the note and agreed cordially to its suggestion that the war shall be localized and the neutral rights of China respected, with the understanding, however, that this is not to exclude part of Manchuria and the whole of Korea from being the scene of war, nor to affect Russian or Japanese rights already existing. It was of course certain from the course events have taken that the war would be fought largely, if not entirely, in nominally neutral territory; and as Russia's claims in Manchuria and Japan's claims in Korea were the cause of the war, the contest, if it took place at all, was bound to recognize those facts. Russia's reply to Secretary Hay is a virtual acceptance of the principle of his note, with the proviso that nothing in it shall be taken to affect Russia's control of her railroads in Manchuria and right to protect them. The Russian and French view of Mr. Hay's note is evidently that the much-discussed phrase about the "administrative entity" of China does not materially affect the position of the Powers on the question of China's integrity, but it is now agreed that the war shall not cause a divergence from the positions already taken by the Powers in this respect. Japan has also sent a diplomatic note to China, not only giving assurance in line with Mr. Hay's note, but further declaring that the war is being waged by Japan, not for conquest, but solely for the defense of her legitimate rights and interests, and that, consequently, the Japanese Government has no intention to acquire territory, as a result of the conflict, at the expense of China.

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The Russian Press Censorship

The announcement that Russia has abolished the censorship on telegrams from Russia to other countries records a welcome reform, so far as it goes, and may suggest to Russians the desire to be treated by their Government as well as it treats foreigners. Despatches from St. Petersburg state that on account of restrictions of the press censorship the Russian public is left almost wholly in the dark with regard to the progress of the war in the Far East. The newspapers of the capital are allowed to publish only the meager bulletins that appear in the "Official Gazette," and two daily journals (the "Russ" and the St. Petersburg "Vedomosti") have already been punished for giving currency to war news that proved to be erroneous. The severity and exasperating nature of the Russian press censorship may be indicated by reference to a few of the "warnings" given or punishments inflicted upon Russian newspapers in the last five years, and the titles of the articles to which official objection was made. The "Novoe Vremya," one of the most important daily journals in the Empire, was held up for a week on account of an editorial entitled "Labor Troubles." The "Russki Vedomosti," of Moscow, was suspended for two months because it published an article upon "The Collection of Subscriptions for the Dukhobors." The "Khozain" had to go out of business for six months on account of an editorial entitled "Culture in the Zemstvos." Dozens of other papers and magazines were suspended for periods

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of from two to eight months, without the assignment of any definite reasons, and upon the ground merely that their "tendency" was "prejudicial." Among the periodicals "warned," forbidden to print advertisements, or deprived of street and hotel sales, were the "Russki Trud," for a letter describing "Two Days in Helsingfors;" the "Slovo," for comments on "Trade Unions;" the "Sin Otechestva," for an editorial on "The Woman Question;" the "Slovo," a second time, for a discussion of the "Problems of Contemporary France and West-European Civilization;" the "Voskhod," for an article on "Liberty of Conscience;" the St. Petersburg "Vedomosti," for an editorial on the same subject; the "Khozain," a second time, for an article on "Evils of the Day;" the "Severni Viestnik," for a review of "Contemporary Science;" the "Severni Kurier," for an article on "The Complications of Life;" and the "Mirovie Otgoloski," for manifesting what the censor called "a light-minded tendency." It is not easy to understand how papers that live under the harrow of such a censorship, and that are punished every few months by prohibition of street sales or deprivation of the right to print advertisements, can retain spirit and cheerfulness enough to manifest "a light-minded tendency;" but an editor may be light-minded without being light-hearted; and it is possible that the light-mindedness of the "Mirovie Otgoloski" was shown merely in a disposition to ridicule or satirize some stupid bureaucratic regulation whose "tendency" would be to increase "The Complications of Life."

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Curiosities of the Censorship

The reasons assigned by Russian censors for red-penciling words, phrases, or paragraphs that seem to them objectionable are often very curious and extraordinary. In a volume of recently published "Recollections" Professor Nikitenko, of the St. Petersburg University, says that in a long article upon a philosophical subject which he once wrote for a Russian review he made the apparently innocent statement that a certain principle was "the corner-stone of Comte's system of philosophy." The civil censor, to whom the manuscript was first submitted, passed it as a whole, without suggestion or alteration; but the ecclesiastical censor, whose approval was also necessary, returned it to the author with a red-pencil line drawn through the compound word "corner-stone." Feeling a curiosity to know what possible objection there could be to this word, Professor Nikitenko called on the ecclesiastical censor, and asked him the question. The censor's face assumed a very grave and severe expression as he replied solemnly, "The word 'corner-stone' is used in the Holy Scriptures to designate, or symbolize, our Blessed Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and it must not be used in connection with any profane system of philosophy"! Some years later, Professor Nikitenko himself became a member of the St. Petersburg Bureau of Censorship, and he states that at one of its regular meetings, when the particular book under consideration happened to be a compendium of general history for the use of schools, the chairman seriously proposed to strike out all references to Mohammed and the rise and spread of Mohammedanism, on the ground that "Mohammedanism is a false religion, and Mohammed himself was a good-for-nothing (*negodia*), anyway." A Russian author who had translated a foreign novel called "Passion's Slave" was informed by the censor, to whom he sent the manuscript, that it could not be approved under that title, for the reason that "his Gracious Imperial Majesty, Alexander Nikolaievitch, had freed all the serfs in Russia, and there were no longer any slaves in the empire." The translator protested against this decision, on the ground that the book was a work of fiction, and had nothing whatever to do with involuntary servitude in its historical aspect. The censor, however, was inflexible, and the exasperated translator finally said, "I suppose you would have no objection if I should substitute 'negro' for 'slave.'" The official replied, blandly, that "Passion's Negro" would meet with his approval, and under that absurd title the book was published, and had a

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large sale. Another censor objected to the words "prussic acid" in a text-book on chemistry translated from an English original. "In Germany," he said to the translator, "they call it 'hydrocyanic acid,' and you must do the same, because 'prussic acid' will be sure to give offense to the Germans, which, at the present moment, is not our policy at all." These, of course, are extreme illustrations of censorial stupidity and muddle-headedness, but the whole system is irritating both to editors and readers, and it is particularly exasperating in time of war. The "Novoe Vremya" said, only a few days ago, in commenting on the suppression of war news, "Let us know the worst; we are not children!" But the Russian Government still persists in treating its people as minor wards, who are not to be trusted either with freedom of speech or with knowledge of facts.

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The English Ministry

The Balfour Ministry received another shock on Monday night of last week, when Mr. John Morley's amendment to the King's speech, declaring that a return to protective duties would be injurious, was defeated after a long debate by the small majority of fifty-one—less than half the majority which the Ministry has commanded for many months past. The resolution, which was very skillfully drawn, was an expression of lack of confidence in the Government, and was debated at great length, Mr. Chamberlain remaining silent and various members of the Ministry endeavoring to make clear to a somewhat skeptical house that Mr. Balfour's proposed scheme of retaliation had nothing in common with protective duties. Even the small majority must not be counted as indicating support of the proposed fiscal measures; many men voted to support the Government who, in a general election, will stand by free-trade principles. Perhaps the most significant aspect of the vote was the defection of the Irish Nationalists from the Ministerial party. The Irish party in Parliament has, as a matter of fact, but one interest, and Mr. Redmond explained that the Irish members did not intend to deal with the fiscal question as a group; they were only glad of an opportunity of expressing their lack of confidence in the Government. The Nationalist members care only for Home Rule, and their position in Parliament with reference to the two parties is determined solely by the interests of that cause. Mr. Redmond has recently declared that the Ministry has not kept its promises. Mr. Wyndham has exercised a distinct influence as a mediator, but it looks as if he could not go far enough to satisfy his Irish allies. He has refused so far to equip an Irish Catholic University, but if he had done so he would not have satisfied his allies; apparently they will be content with nothing short of Home Rule. It is not probable that the Government can accept the conditions which the Irish Nationalists will impose upon it as precedent to their continued allegiance, but it does not necessarily follow that the Irish votes will be immediately withdrawn, since the Irish have as little to gain now from the Opposition as from the Government.

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Senator Hanna

The death of Senator Hanna has evoked an extraordinary expression of personal regard based on the frankness, cordiality, and natural kindliness of a man who in eight years had put himself well to the front in public life. Of the quality of his public service and of his conception of the work of a statesman The Outlook gave some account last week. When a man dies, it is his personal character which for the moment absorbs attention. In Senator Hanna's case expression has been singularly cordial and kindly. Every public honor has been accorded him. The State funeral held in the Senate Chamber on Wednesday of last week was attended by the President and his Cabinet, by representatives of the diplomatic corps, by members of the Supreme Court, of the Senate, and of the House of Representatives. The services were of the simplest character; and Dr. Hale's tribute, although brief, did not lack tenderness. He quoted the comment, "Hanna is a man who means to apply

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to politics the methods of business men of honor." The United Mine Workers, in accordance with an order issued by President Mitchell, ceased work on the afternoon of the public funeral as a token of respect. On the following day the body of the Senator lay in state in the auditorium of the Chamber of Commerce in Cleveland, and on Friday the funeral services were held in St. Paul's Episcopal Church. The procession to the church passed through immense throngs, and the church was crowded to the doors, Bishop Leonar , Dr. McGrew, pastor of the church, and President Pierce, of Kenyon College, conducting the services. No demonstration of affection and respect was lacking, and unaffected expression of sorrow was noted on all sides. The discussion in regard to the succession in the Senatorship from Ohio deals so far chiefly with the names of the Hon. Charles Dick, who has had long experience in practical politics as Chairman of the Ohio Republican Executive Committee and as Secretary of the Republican National Committee, and who is now serving his fourth term as a Representative in Congress of the nineteenth Ohio district; the Hon. Theodore E. Burton, who has been in Congress since 1895, and who is Chairman of the Committee on Rivers and Harbors; and the Hon. M. T. Herrick, of Cleveland, now Governor of the State. Judge Taft's name has also been mentioned, but he has just taken up his work as Secretary of War, and as his ambition is understood to be judicial rather than legislative, it is doubtful whether he would accept a transfer to the Senate if it were offered him.

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Fair Play and the Indians

Mr. Kennan on another page gives a dispassionate and striking account of the latest attempt to rob the Indian wards of the Nation. While this robbery was undoubtedly instigated and planned in South Dakota, unfortunately Congress and the Interior Department were made—although perhaps unconsciously—accomplices before the fact. We may perhaps venture to say that this piece of gross injustice to Indians was brought to the attention of the President through the instrumentality of The Outlook, and that owing to his personal indignation at the proposed mean bargain the swindle has been blocked. It is fair, on the one hand, to say that the Secretary of the Interior and the Indian Commissioner are personally not in the slightest degree involved in the proposed corrupt sale, but that they have yielded to the political pressure which is so constantly brought to bear upon administrative officials by members of the legislative branch of the Government. But, on the other hand, it should be remembered that the Indian Commissioner and the Secretary of the Interior are put in their respective offices to do exactly the thing they have not done in this case—to advise with regard to legislation as experts, and to block, in so far as they can, legislation which is either dishonorable or unwise as it may touch their own departments. For them to plead, as in this case they have done, that they approved ills regarding the Indians which they deemed not only to be unwise but unjust and possibly even dishonest, because of political pressure, is like saying that nobody is to blame for the explosion of the boiler because the metal was not strong enough to resist a steam pressure which the boiler had been expressly manufactured to resist.

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Ex-President Cleveland's Platform

The Outlook has already reported the political platforms of Mr. Bryan and Representative Williams. We here give an epitome of the platform of ex-President Cleveland as he presents it to the readers of the "Saturday Evening Post" (of Philadelphia) in its issue of February 20. Like most of what Mr. Cleveland says and writes, it is admirable in its spirit, though somewhat vague in its definition of policies. He declares his belief that there is "an opportunity for Democratic success in the coming Presidential election," because of the "abandonment by the party in power of our National traditions and maxims, its disregard of our National moral restraints, . . . and its contemptuous neglect of our National

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mission." But he is also confident that "if success is to be gathered from such opportunity, our party has fearless, outspoken, and heroic work to do. This is no time for cunning finesse, nor for the use of words that conceal intentions or carry a double meaning." "Obsolete issues, and questions no longer challenging popular interest, should be manfully abandoned; and the presentment of our claims to the people's confidence should be short, simple, and courageous." The party should pledge itself to tariff reform and economy in public expenditure. Anti-trust legislation is not by name mentioned; but the somewhat vague paragraph which will be interpreted as bearing upon that subject warns the party against "extravagant and misleading promises of futile interference" with monopolistic greed, and demands a constant recognition of the line of demarcation between Federal and State regulation and correction of "abuses that threaten the people's prosperity and protection." Mr. Cleveland condemns vigorously the action of our Government in the Philippines, and demands the early establishment and recognition of Philippine independence; condemns our action in Panama, though with less vigor, and in general terms demands that "such conflicting claims and contested authority as may grow out of the step already taken for the creation and construction of the Panama Canal shall be regarded in a spirit of broad conciliation and with ready and scrupulous care for the dictates of international morality as well as the rules of international law." If we may be permitted to epitomize this platform of Mr. Cleveland in seven sentences, we should do it thus: Keep silence on the currency question; Reform the tariff; Cut down expenditures; Leave the Trusts to State legislation; Get out of the Philippines at the earliest possible date; Build the Panama Canal; Pay Colombia for the damage she has suffered. On the whole, it is safe to say that this letter will be regarded, and rightly, as a challenge to the Bryan wing of the Democratic party, quite as much as to the Republican party. Mr. Cleveland's hope of success for the Democratic party must rest, we think, largely on his conviction that Bryanism is dead because Bryan has been twice defeated. If so, we anticipate that he will find evidence of his mistake in the next National Democratic Convention.

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Woman Suffrage Extolled

From the 11th to the 18th of February the thirty-sixth annual Woman's Suffrage Convention was held in the city of Washington. Its meetings were crowded; its delegates were received by the President; its speakers included several eminent women. The fact that in Australia, for the first time in federal elections, women cast their ballots last December was a cause for much gratified comment. Limited suffrage has been exercised by women in parts of Australia before, but not the federal franchise. Of almost every extension of the suffrage the immediate effect has been to strengthen the conservative element in the electorate, and the extension of the suffrage to women has generally been no exception. In Australia, however, although in the tariff stronghold the women were protectionists and in the free-trade stronghold the women proved to be free-traders, the ballots of the women in Victoria, Queensland, and West Australia brought great gains to the labor party. At the Washington Convention Miss 'Anthony contrasted the triumph of woman suffrage in Australia with the struggles of its early advocates, and traced the growth of the movement from its beginnings, when women were given in one locality after another the privilege of voting on school questions, to the present, when women vote in many municipal and State elections. A shrewd policy is observable in the adoption by the Convention of two plans: one, to extend the activities of the organized woman suffragists to the advocacy of social reforms in general; the other, to meet the argument of opponents who say that women do not want the ballot by increasing the membership of suffrage associations. By combining the two plans, the suffragists can say to women who are indifferent on the subject of the ballot but are eager to ameliorate factory conditions, for

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instance, "We are working for better factory laws—join us;" and then can turn to the anti-suffragists and say, "Our increased membership is proof that women want the ballot." It seemed to be the conclusion that it was best to emphasize the propaganda for full suffrage, as experience had shown that getting limited suffrage, such as the right to vote in school elections, proved an obstacle to further advance, because it left the women satisfied with the half-way measure. People who do not believe that it would be to the advantage either of women or of society that the burden of the suffrage should be imposed upon women can nevertheless join the delegates to the Woman's Suffrage Convention in rejoicing in the enlargement of women's opportunities that has been characteristic of the last half-century.

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Local Option Under Fire

Again the attempt is being made to undermine the local option law of New York State. As it is now, every town has the privilege of voting Yes or No on each and all of the following questions: Shall liquor be sold in (1) saloons "to be drunk on the premises"? (2) in hotels to be used by guests? (3) in grocery-stores, not to be drunk on the premises? (4) in drug-stores on a physician's prescription? A bill has been introduced into the Legislature to exempt hotels from this list. This means that no town would be able to prohibit the sale of liquor any day, Sunday included; it would mean the establishment of bar-rooms open seven days in the week in towns all over the State against the will of those towns. In the old days, when the license system prevailed, the officials could refuse a license to any man they decided to be unfit; under the present law, if the sale of liquor is allowed at all, it is allowed to anybody who pays the tax. The passage of the proposed bill would mean the destruction of local option in New York State and the establishment throughout the State, practically without restraint, of houses that would be worse than saloons. The time when up-State legislators are arguing against granting home-rule privileges for New York City on the ground that they wish to protect "the American Sabbath," is hardly appropriate for the introduction of a bill legalizing Sunday selling in every town.

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Mayor McClellan as a Municipal Administrator

During the campaign before the election in New York City last fall there was frequent assertion of the belief that if the Tammany candidate should be elected the administration of city affairs would lapse into the condition existing under Mayor Van Wyck, when the City Hall became the center of a government by Tammany and for Tammany. Many people, not without justification, took counsel of their fears. Tammany has now been in power almost two months. It cannot be doubted that the pressure which believers in good government have to withstand is stronger now than before the beginning of the year; but Mayor McClellan, at least, has shown no small ability in withstanding that pressure. On three points particularly he has stood for government in the interest, not of corporations or politicians, but of the city. His energetic but temperate measures on behalf of safety in theater construction have won wide approval. Calling the theatrical managers of the city together, he presented to them the city's demands; and theaters which have not complied within a reasonable time he has caused to be closed pending enforced alterations. He has vetoed a measure passed by the Board of Aldermen giving, without compensation and without stipulations as to the exemption of the city from unnecessary expense, a franchise to a transit company, and has taken the occasion of the veto to lay down certain sound principles which ought to be observed in every such case. And he has approved and promoted the plan to use the salt water of the rivers and harbor for fire purposes, thus lending the weight of his office to the movement for this progressive project. The fact that he has written a book on the Oligarchy of Venice, of sufficient value to be published by a firm of high standing, is an

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additional indication that the spirit in which he is undertaking the solution of municipal problems is not petty or sordid. While the campaign was in progress last fall, The Outlook said the issue was one between the partisan and the non-partisan theory of municipal government. We believe most strongly that the partisan theory for which Mr. McClellan stands is a mistaken one, and, so far as it prevails, will prove harmful to the best kind of city government; but since he believes in it, he has thus far taken to a considerable degree the best mode of commending it to the people.

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Law Instead of Lynching

Under the leadership of Governor Montague, Virginia has planted herself squarely on the side of civilization against barbarism. On January 31 a negro in Roanoke entered the house of a white man and made an assault on his wife and little daughter, the details of which are so fiendishly brutal that it is quite impossible to print them and it would be impossible for most people to read them. There could not have been a more terrible provocation than this brutal negro gave to the community, and the passion for vengeance took possession of the town. Governor Montague was in Florida when a telegram reached him giving an account of the assault. He took the first train home. It was obviously impossible to secure a fair trial at Roanoke, and the Governor induced the Legislature to pass a bill empowering a trial judge to remove into another jurisdiction a prisoner who petitioned for a change of venue. Judge Woods, of Roanoke, refused to act under this law, and the Governor, in order to protect the prisoner, ordered out a large body of militia from Richmond, Petersburg, Lynchburg, Suffolk, and other towns, and sent them to Roanoke by special train. A jury was impaneled, and the criminal was tried and sentenced within a few hours to be hung on the eighteenth day of March, six weeks after the crime was committed. By his prompt action Governor Montague has protected the established rights of a criminal, no matter what his crime, by surrounding him with troops and securing a trial by jury. He has protected the interests of the State by the promptness with which the trial was secured and the certainty of the execution of the death penalty within a few weeks of the commission of the crime. Governor Montague has also secured the passage by the Legislature of Virginia of a law which provides that women who have been made victims of criminal assault shall not be compelled to give evidence in regard to the details of the assault in open court, but the testimony may be taken by deposition at their own homes and read to the jury. For obvious reasons, the great majority of women would not be willing to give such testimony in open court, and there are a good many women who would prefer death to narrating such an experience in a court-room. So long as proper provision is made for cross-examination, it would seem as if there could not be any objection to this law, while its advantages are very many. Governor Montague's action cannot be too highly commended, and public opinion in Virginia, as voiced by the press, thoroughly sustains him. He has cut the ground out from under the lyncher's own arguments; he has protected a criminal in danger from a mob by instantly invoking the military power of the State; he has secured a prompt trial; he has protected the rights of victims by providing for the taking of testimony in private; it only remains, as a further safeguard, to abolish appeals, except on certificate of the trial judge. This was in many ways a test case. The crime is probably the most horrible ever committed in the State of Virginia; the brute who committed it seems to have exhausted his ingenuity in devising means of fiendish torture. The heart of the community was wrung by the appalling offense against a child and a respectable woman; there was every incentive to passionate vengeance; but the Governor has kept the record of the State clean, and has shown the way to secure prompt punishment without mob violence. His course is a vindication of the superiority of civilized over barbarous methods, and confirms the high estimation in which he is held both in the North and in the South

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as an Executive of character, statesmanship, and forceful personality.

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Berea College The Lower House of the Kentucky Legislature, by a party vote, passed a bill last week prohibiting co-education of the races in any of the educational institutions of the State, with an amendment permitting corporations conducting such schools to maintain separate schools which must be at least twenty-five miles apart. This action will be a great disappointment to those who expected better things from so enlightened a State; for the measure is aimed at a single institution, and that institution one of the most useful in the United States—a college which is working for the betterment of the State of Kentucky more directly, probably, and in certain important ways more efficiently, than any other institution of learning within the borders of the commonwealth. Berea was founded by Southerners who held anti-slavery views, for the purpose of affording a rational education to negroes as well as to whites. It was organized as a Christian institution, and as such was "opposed to sectarianism, slaveholding, caste, and every other wrong institution and practice." It has been doing its work in the face of great obstacles, and with the unflinching self-sacrifice of consecrated teachers, for nearly fifty years; it has accumulated a considerable endowment and has awakened great interest, especially among those Northern men and women who have appreciated the high quality of its work and the self-sacrificing spirit of its instructors. It has appealed especially to the young men and young women of the mountain region, and the emphasis of its work has lain with them. It has now on its roll 174 colored students and 803 white students. Of these white students a large majority come from the mountain regions. Berea is the college of the mountain people, whose story President Frost has told with convincing eloquence in many parts of the country. To him, more than to any other man, is due the widespread interest in the mountain population, numbering two millions of people, and more sorely in need of education than any other white population in the United States. To these people Berea is furnishing a practical education at a nominal cost. It has served, and it has the opportunity of serving, the State of Kentucky in a more direct way and with a larger reach of immediate influence for good than any other institution in the State. President Frost is a scholar who gave up a position in the field that he loved best, at a great sacrifice of income, to become the servant of Kentucky. He is surrounded by a group of men and women whose salaries are of the smallest, and whose service is of the most generous quality and character. The College has accumulated the largest college library in the State, it owns a large tract of land in a charming section of the country, it has put up numerous buildings, it has an endowment fund of $450,000, and it has received and expended annually during recent years an additional sum of $30,000, the gifts of generous men and women. There has never been a scandal connected with the institution. Both races have met in the class-room, but there has never been any attempt to teach the doctrine of general social equality. The teachers of the College have favored a separation of races in the public schools of Kentucky, and have been opposed to anything which tended to amalgamation of the races; and it is said that during the history of the College no scandal of any kind has stained its record. The Legislature of Kentucky has a right to forbid the teaching of the two races under the same roof in any institution sustained by public funds. But Berea is not sustained by public funds; it is a private institution; no one goes to it unless he or she chooses to go. It is a serious question whether the State Legislature has a right to step in and declare that young men and young women of different races shall not be taught together in the same recitation-rooms if they choose. The course of Berea has been so conservative, its record so stainless, its value to the State and to the Nation so great, that the best friends of Kentucky will earnestly hope that better counsels will prevail, and that a bill

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which strikes at one of the most efficient instruments of civilization in a commonwealth which has long been notable for the generosity of its spirit will not become a law.

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The Distribution of Immigrants

Commissioner Sargent, of the Bureau of Immigration, in his latest report recommended the establishment of a bureau of information to assist newly arrived aliens in becoming acquainted with America. In accordance with this recommendation, a bill has been drawn up providing for the establishment of such a bureau, and is now under consideration by the Immigration Committee of the Senate. The bill ought to meet with favorable action. Under present conditions immigrants are becoming concentrated in the East, for the most part in the large cities, and especially in and about the city of New York. This congestion of aliens is very nearly, if not altogether, the most menacing feature of the present immigration. It is only natural that such congestion should exist. Inertia, which is a trait of human beings as well as of inanimate bodies, favors it. A stranger will not go any further from the port where he arrives than he has to go, without some good reason. Then, too, the immediate effective demand for labor which the immigrant encounters on his arrival is more convincing than a demand which, though it may be more pressing, comes at second hand from a distance. Social congestion, moreover, unlike physiological congestion, is contagious. Where the most foreigners are, incoming foreigners are most likely to find friends and there most likely to settle. Commissioner Sargent's plan is to establish an office on Ellis Island in New York Harbor where the authorities could put before the immigrants directly the advantages of various parts of the country, show pictures of the South and the West that would indicate to the Italian or the Swede or the Hungarian the places where he might find a home most nearly approaching in characteristics the home he had left, and make clear the demand for his labor which he would never learn from those who are likely to offer him work in New York. In other words, the proposed measure is designed to supplement the restriction of immigration with a wise distribution of the immigrants who are admitted.

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Wage-Earners and Christian Associations

At the biennial Convention of the Young Men's Christian Association of New York State, held at Utica February 11–14, a remarkable series of papers was read on religious forces among the industrial classes. The topic included the work of the Railroad Young Men's Christian Association; and the cause of success in this branch was treated from two points of view: from the first, it was shown by a railroad official to be of economic value to the railroad companies by improving the morale of the men, and therefore increasing the utility of the railroads as public servants; from the second, it was shown by an Association secretary to be due partly to the kind of men attracted by railroad life and the flexibility of the methods prevailing in railroad Associations. More striking in some respects, because more unfamiliar, was the discussion of the progress of religious work among factory operatives, artisans, and employed boys. It is surprising to learn from these papers the extent to which wage-earners have entered into the life of Young Men's Christian Associations. In Germany the Associations have spread chiefly among the industrial classes. In Rochester, New York, sixty per cent. of the membership is reported as mechanics. In Leicestershire, where seventy-five per cent. of the population are artisans, artisans constitute eighty per cent. of the membership. Such facts show that wage-earners do not necessarily find the Association uncongenial. Indeed, it was declared that in Associations where there were many wage-earners, class distinctions were not drawn. Emphasis was laid on the fact that what is called distinctively religious work and flexibility in social and "welfare" elements were both essential in promoting the Association among workingmen. As Dr. L. L. Dogget said, two-thirds of

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the young men of our cities are engaged in industrial and mechanical pursuits, and the Young Men's Christian Association will not find its real field until it finds men of this kind the dominant factor in its own life. The papers read on this subject at the Convention are important enough to deserve a permanent form.

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Richard Strauss and His Music

On the arrival of Richard Strauss in the United States there is to begin a series of concerts made up of his compositions and conducted by him. He is the most extreme prophet of what is called programme music that ever put crotchets and quavers on paper or waved a baton. In some households the grandfather has been known to seat himself at the piano, call the children about him, and inquire if they wished a story. To their chorused "yes" he has begun somewhat after this fashion: "Once upon a time a little girl was walking through a forest"—hereupon with his forefinger he picks out slowly a diatonic scale in the middle of the keyboard; "she hears the birds singing"—he strikes a few notes way up in the treble; "but in the distance she hears the sound of thunder"—and he runs his fingers over the notes in the deep bass. So he goes on, while the children listen open-mouthed. Substitute for the grandfather a young man who knows apparently all that ever has been known about the technique of music and a good deal besides; put instead of the piano an orchestra composed of all the instruments that are ever used in a modern orchestra and other things that are not musical instruments; change the story from the young girl in the forest to the experiences of Cervantes's hero or the aspirations of a heroic soul or even the teachings of Nietzsche's philosophy, described not by a voice but in a printed programme, and you have Strauss's orchestral compositions. The question arises, Is this musical art? We do not undertake to say what the ultimate verdict will be on Strauss's dissonant harmonies which to many even educated musical hearers sound like cacophony, or, in plain language, din. We do not forget that some of Beethoven's contemporaries were indignant at the sounds he perpetrated. The question is not whether Strauss's compositions are noise or music, but whether they are art or merely entertainment. As a prelude to Strauss's arrival, the Boston Symphony Orchestra last week performed his "Theme with Variations," Don Quixote. He undertakes in this to portray Don Quixote, Sancho Panza, the fighting with the windmills, the encounter with the sheep, and other incidents, and even to express musically Don Quixote's "false conclusions." One auditor was greatly amused at the verisimilitude of the sound of the windmills until he learned that it represented the bleating of sheep, and then he was amused still more. Unquestionably Strauss can and does write passages of great beauty—music luminous with sweeping streaks of color like Northern Lights—but as yet in his orchestral works they are episodic.

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The Situation in San Domingo

The disturbed condition of affairs in San Domingo described in The Outlook last week and the renewal of the repeated attacks on American property by the insurgents resulted, it now seems, in summary action by the United States forces on February 12. The insurgents had fired upon the Clyde Line steamship New York, while she was discharging cargo. The United States cruiser Newark returned the fire, shelled the camp of the insurgents, and later landed marines who drove the insurgents back. This action is regarded by the officials in Washington merely as an assertion of the right of the United States to protect American life and property. The fact that our forces acted in aid of the established government is evidence of the improbability that the United States has any intention or desire to assume control of the government of San Domingo. It is emphatically stated in official circles in Washington that no one connected with the Administration had the slightest desire to annex San Domingo.

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The War in the East

Mr. George Kennan as Special Correspondent

It gives The Outlook great satisfaction to announce that Mr. George Kennan, whose expeditions to Cuba and Martinique on behalf of The Outlook will be recalled with interest by our readers, will start almost immediately for Japan and the Orient, as the exclusive representative of The Outlook at the scene of the Russo-Japanese war. Mr. Kennan is one of the first of living English-speaking experts concerning the political, social, economic, and human life of modern Russia. Contrary to a belief which seems to prevail among some people, Mr. Kennan is not a hater of Russia. He is rather a hater of the despotism of Russian bureaucracy and autocracy, but a believer in and an admirer of the Russian people, their virility and their genius. He writes and speaks Russian, and is in constant touch with Russia through personal correspondence and Russian newspapers and current literature. He now goes to the Orient to make for The Outlook—in so far as he can in a year's time—studies of the Japanese, Chinese, and Korean peoples in the same spirit with which he has studied the Russian people. He does not go merely as a war correspondent. Mr. Kennan will consider not merely the war, nor first of all the war, but primarily the racial, human, and economic causes which are at the bottom of the Eastern question. If peace should be declared to-morrow, he would still make the expedition, for The Outlook believes that the causes of the present military conflict and the results to follow from it are of permanent and world-wide interest in the history of modern civilization.

Mr. Kennan, by nature, training, and experience, as our readers know from his contributions to The Outlook during the last six years, is especially fitted to observe and study the ebb and flow, the rise and fall, of the great conflict between racial and commingling forces in the East; and to report them to our readers, not only in a deeply interesting and vivid narrative, but with philosophic interpretation. The United States will watch the Eastern conflict, not only as a spectator, but to a large degree as a nation directly interested. Whether we welcome the fact or not, the United States, from its responsibilities in the Philippines and Hawaii and through its important and influential share in the world-diplomacy connected with the East, has duties, responsibilities, and even dangers to face in the racial and international conflict in Asia. Mr. Kennan will make it a special part of his undertaking to study and report upon the relations of the American people and Government to the Eastern question. In pursuit of this work he will visit not only Japan, Korea, and China, but—before his return—the Philippine Islands and Hawaii. With this purpose in view, we believe he will be able to give the readers of The Outlook a clear as well as a vivid picture of the great international activities in the Far East, in which the United States is, we believe, to play a larger part as time goes on.

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Letters to a Minister

The Authority of the Preacher—I.

The writers of the Bible speak with authority. When Moses came down from Mount Sinai, it was not to say to the Children of Israel on the plain, I advise you not to steal, not to kill, not to commit adultery; you will be a great deal happier if you do not do these things; the experience of the world indicates that this is disadvantageous. He says, Thou shalt not steal, thou shalt not kill, thou shalt not commit adultery. He speaks with authority. When Isaiah speaks to the Children of Israel, in a later age, he does not say, I think you are mistaken in putting such stress on forms and ceremonies; it is far more important to keep the heart clean than it is to offer sacrifices; the experience of the world indicates this; and there are other good reasons for thinking so. He says, in the name of God, and speaking as for him, "To what purpose are the multitude of your sacrifices? Wash you, make you clean, put away the evil

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of your tongues from before mine eyes; cease to do evil, learn to do well." These prophets spoke in the name of God. Their customary phrase was, "Thus saith the Lord." They spoke with authority. When Christ came, and a great audience of four or five thousand gather to hear that ordination sermon which we call the Sermon on the Mount, he does not argue, he does not philosophize—he declares; and when he has finished, the people say, This man speaks not as the scribes and the Pharisees; this man speaks with authority. He promises to his Apostles similar authority. He says, "Power shall come upon you after the Holy Spirit comes." When Paul writes his Epistles, it is still with power. The Gospel, he says, is the power of God unto salvation. From the first of Exodus to the close of the canon, the end of Revelation, the Bible speaks with authority.

Where did these men get their authority? What was the secret of it? What was its nature? They certainly did not get it from the Bible; because the Bible is composed of what they said; it is the product of their utterances. The Bible gets its authority from the prophets and the Apostles; the prophets and the Apostles do not get their authority from the Bible. That is very clear.

They did not get it from the Church. Moses spoke before any church was organized. The later prophets stood in no relation to the Church; they did not belong to the hierarchy. The priests were in a succession, but the prophets were not. In the later times, Christ and the Apostles did not get their authority from the Church. Christ did not; the Church excommunicated him; the major part of his life the Church was fighting him. Paul did not; the Christian Church was divided on the question whether he was an Apostle or not, and the Jewish Church turned him out of the synagogue. On the whole, it may be said of Christ and the Apostles that the Church antagonized them.

The sacred writers did not get their authority from reason. Their affirmations were not deductions; their revealings were not conclusions of arguments. The Hebrews were not philosophers. They did not argue, they did not present reasons. Jesus Christ did not argue. Paul argued, but only for the purpose of making the people perceive the conclusion which he had already reached by another process. Sometimes his arguments were very illogical; sometimes the processes were, judged by the standards of philosophy, wrong. He sought to make men see the truth as he saw it; any process would do that opened their eyes to that truth. His most authoritative declarations have no arguments behind them. He says, "We know that all the world travaileth in pain together until now," "We know that all things work together for good to them that love God:" these are not conclusions; no argument precedes them.

These writers did not get their authority from miracles. Granting that all the so-called miracles in the Bible were performed exactly as narrated, still it remains true that the great majority of the Bible teachers performed no miracles, and of those who did perform miracles the great majority made their utterances independent of any miracles.

They did not get their authority from the fulfillment of prophecy. Events occurring from two to four centuries after the death of the prophet could not have given the living prophet his authority. Their authority did not come from prophecy, nor from miracles, nor from argument, nor from the Church, nor from the Bible; and yet they spoke with authority.

Paul has described this authority:

> And my speech and my preaching was not with enticing words of man's wisdom, but in demonstration of the Spirit and of power.

His power was a demonstration of the Spirit. What does that mean? A little later in this Epistle he tells us what it means:

> But as it is written, Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither have entered into the heart of man, the things which God hath prepared for them that love him. But God hath revealed them unto us by his Spirit: for the Spirit searcheth all things, yea, the deep things of God. For what man knoweth the things of a man, save the spirit of man which is in him? even so the things of God knoweth no man, but the Spirit of God. Now we have received, not the spirit of the world, but the spirit which is of God; that

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we might know the things that are freely given to us of God. Which things also we speak, not in the words which man's wisdom teacheth, but which the Holy Ghost teacheth; comparing spiritual things with spiritual. But the natural man receiveth not the things of the Spirit of God: for they are foolishness unto him: neither can he know them, because they are spiritually discerned. But he that is spiritual judgeth all things, yet he himself is judged of no man.

Every man has a body, a physical organism. He has a social and intellectual character that is somewhat akin to that of the animal. And he also possesses a spiritual nature, a faith, a hope, a love, that transcend the animal nature, the social nature, the physical nature. This spiritual nature in man searches the deep things of God. It is all the time groping; it is all the time looking for something the eye does not see and even the imagination has not conceived. It feels, it realizes, it knows, because it is spirit; knows something that transcends the senses, something that argument cannot bring, something that logic cannot demonstrate. Every man has this spirit in him. If we so speak that we evoke that spiritual response in the men who listen to us, our words are with authority, because they themselves see also that it is true. We are ourselves revelators. We draw aside the veil that hangs over men's souls, and then they see and know. Not because the church has told them, not because the Bible has told them, not because miracles have attested it, not because fulfilled prophecy has proved it, not because reason has reached it, but because they see it.

This is the authority which underlies the Ten Commandments and the Sermon on the Mount.

Jesus Christ says, It has been told you, Thou shalt not commit adultery; but I tell you, Do not indulge in lustful thoughts: it has been told you, Thou shalt hate thine enemies, but love thy friends; but I tell you, Love your enemies, do good to them that despitefully use you. What is the authority? This: that in men there is a capacity to see the truth and the beauty of those utterances. There is no need of argument. The congregation go away saying to themselves, That is true. The authority lies in the preacher because it lies in the heart of the hearer. It lies in the preacher because he is able to evoke in the heart of the hearer the same voice that has spoken within his own heart.

This is the basis of all ethical instruction. Philosophize as we may as to the basis of ethics, the foundation fact is that men are able to see right and wrong. Right is a kind of beauty, and when the beauty is displayed, men recognize it.

If the preacher can so sketch the beauty of truth that ordinary men shall say, I see the beauty, he will speak with authority. And if he cannot so present it, all authority of gowns and crosses, of ordination and the laying on of hands, of books and churches, of arguments and reasons, will not suffice. Authority lies in the power to make men see what the preacher has seen.

L. A.

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A Lenten Thought

Finding God

"I *believe* in God! that is a fair and laudable profession; but to *acknowledge* God when and wherever he may reveal himself, this is the only true blessedness on earth." In these striking words Goethe brought into light a serious defect in the spiritual life of the world: the habit of belief in God unreinforced by the habit of looking for and finding him in all the ways and works of life. If God were a far-off spirit, inhabiting eternity in awful isolation, men would be compelled to cast all their hopes and trust their ultimate fortunes upon a single act of faith unsupported by a sense of daily fellowship; to pierce the darkness with a single penetrating ray sent into the enfolding blackness from their own souls, like a beam from a flashlight. Many times in the history of men, and in the minds of many men to-day, this belief in God, detached from all associations, unsustained by signs and tokens, omens and forces about them, has held firm in great crises and been an immovable anchorage in the storm of years.

But God is not a far-off and solitary

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spirit to whom the soul ascends by wholly detaching itself from the world and the ways and works of men. God is in the world and in every part of it; time is as much his register as eternity; he moves in the history of the race as certainly as in the vast movement of life outside mortal recording; he gives that history its real significance. His will is throned afar, but it is also expressed in every law under which we live, it is revealed in the very structure of our natures, it touches us through every fine influence that finds its way to our hearts. We are nearer to him than to any of our fellows; for he is within as well as about us, and in him we live and move and have our being.

If these things are true, then the breadth and fullness of a man's religious life are determined, not by the decisiveness with which he affirms his belief in God, but by the comprehensiveness of his acknowledgment of the presence and power of God. The most profoundly religious man is not he who worships God devoutly in one place, but he who finds the whole world ablaze with the light of God's countenance and all life streaming with his power.

We are all going to the Father, as Professor Drummond has told us in one of the most striking and comforting of his many striking and comforting interpretations of time and experience in the light of eternity. We are all going to the Father; that is the real meaning of life. But we are not going to a Father housed afar in unapproachable majesty; we are going to a Father in whose house we are now living, whom we have not seen but who is seeking through everything which surrounds us on our journey to reveal himself to us. Our seeking does not consist in a long and solitary searching in the ends of the world; it consists in so living that we shall come into harmony with his will, and so, through obedience and purity, open our spirits to his coming who surrounds us with himself and is constantly striving to find ways of approach to us. It was a Greek philosopher who created the beautiful fable that man is born into a well-built house in his childhood and that age pulls it down stone by stone until he stands at last in the undimmed sunlight.

We are all going to the Father, but we are not going alone. We are living in our Father's house and journeying through our Father's country, and all things are ordered for our advancement if we will open our eyes to see that Nature is his, for he made it, and what men call science is the knowledge of his truth; that beauty is his, for it is the vesture he wears and the evidence to the eye of the inward perfection; that the family, the Church, and the State are his, for they are the great schools in which men are trained to be like him; that sorrow and trial and the burdens of life are means and tools in his hands for the making of noble souls; that the vast movement of man's life has been his from its far beginning; that in every age he has spoken with more voices and revealed himself in more ways; and that, through clouds and darkness, the lines of a divine order more and more clearly disclose themselves. The deepest and richest belief in God is born in the souls of those who find him everywhere, and to whom all things and all men are sacred because he made and cares for all.

President Eliot on the Labor Problem

The address of President Eliot, of Harvard University, on Sunday, February 7, in Faneuil Hall, Boston, was of National significance. The mere fact that the President of one of the largest and oldest universities in America met with a body of workingmen, as the guest of a labor union, and addressed them on the labor problem, was itself significant. Unfortunately, the labor unions have generally been addressed by labor leaders only, and audiences of employers by representatives of employers. Even the ministers, as a rule, address congregations of employers, and in so doing are too apt to descant on the duties of the employed. Academic instruction on sociological topics is common, but it is largely given to the sons of employers.

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and is either misreported or unreported to workingmen. It is a notable event when so characteristic a body as the Boston Central Labor Union invites so characteristic a representative of the academic life as President Eliot to address it on the labor problem, and he gives the address with that frankness which American audiences have learned always to expect from President Eliot. It is impossible to condense this address into a paragraph, for President Eliot speaks without surplusage. All we can do is to repeat here certain remedies, or at least alterations, which he recommends, or, to quote his own words, his answer to the question, "What modifications of existing labor conditions will tend toward permanent industrial peace, and be absolutely consistent with the democratic ideal of liberty?"

(1) *Steadiness of employment* is reasonably desired by both the workmen and the employer. . . . The instant dismissal of the laborer by the employer, except for the clearest reasons, is brutal, and inconsistent with considerate relations between labor and capital; and even sudden reductions in the working force of a large establishment without notice of previous concert are lamentable, although sometimes unavoidable. . . . The automatic sliding scale of wages also offers advantages in promoting steadiness of employment, and prevents the contests which the inevitable fluctuations of wages are apt to provoke.

(2) Another common need for workmen and employers is that condition of labor which permits *the laborer to have a settled place of abode*. A nomad population can hardly be a civilized one. Only a firmly settled laboring population which desires and expects to pass its life in one spot can be really happy and contented and produce good citizens. . . . It follows that employers or associations of employers that import, or bring from afar, wandering workpeople having no local attachments impair the prospect of establishing just and satisfactory relations between capital and labor.

(3) It is desirable to give the workmen two things which they now but rarely obtain: *First, a voice in the discipline of the works*, including that very important part of discipline, the dealing with complaints; and, *secondly, a direct pecuniary interest besides wages* in the proceeds of the combined application of the capital and the labor to the steady production of salable goods. . . . They almost unanimously believe that it is both right and expedient that they should have a voice in regard to the discipline of the establishment. They also believe, almost unanimously, that the faithful and industrious workman who works for years in the same industrial establishment has earned something more than the wages paid him. They believe that he has contributed to the reputation of the product and therefore to the good will of the establishment, and that he should have some pecuniary share in the value of that reputation and that good will. They recognize the fact that only the settled or reasonably permanent workman has any claim on this intangible and yet real something. The transitory workman who shifts from one factory to another is evidently entitled to his wages only.

. . . . . .

These two provisions—a voice in the discipline of the works and a share in the pecuniary value of the good will—would give the workingman something indispensable to a satisfactory working life, namely, the opportunity and purpose to serve generously and proudly the establishment or institution with which the workman is connected. This is one of the deep, permanent satisfactions of human life, and I cannot call any conditions of employment humane which make that satisfaction unattainable. *Looking back on my own working life, spent in the service of a single institution, I see clearly what a happy privilege it is to give unstinted service to an undying institution in whose permanent and enlarging serviceableness one ardently believes.*

We print this last sentence in italics in order to emphasize the democratic spirit of President Eliot's address, a spirit which leads him to identify himself with the wage-earner working for a great corporation, because he so thoroughly believes that, not always the same method, but always the same spirit, should control the relations of employer and employed, whether the employer is a factory or a college, whether the employed is a factory hand or a college president.

We have not space here to present the arguments by which President Eliot commends these propositions, nor his answer to the objections brought against them. The interested student will find the speech reported in full in the Springfield weekly "Republican," dated Friday, February 12. The Civic Federation would do a good service if it would print an edition of this speech and send it to the labor leaders, the labor journals, and especially to the great "captains of industry" by whom these reforms must be carried out if they are ever to be more than reforms on paper.

The critic may indeed say that there

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is nothing new in these suggestions; and he would be right. What is new is the presentation in a collective form, and in a constructive and conservative spirit, of these recommendations, by one whose counsel will be listened to with respect by men who would give no heed to similar recommendations couched in the form of a demand by a labor leader with a covert threat of a strike in the background to enforce them.

In the last two recommendations, and still more in the spirit of the last sentence, lies, in our judgment, the solution of the labor problem. That problem can be solved only by the democratic spirit working out a solution in harmony with democratic institutions. The demand for a recognition of the union is sometimes very foolishly formulated and very irritatingly pressed, but back of it is this practically unanimous conviction of workingmen that they have a right to some voice in regard to the discipline of the establishment—the hours of labor, the conditions under which it is performed, the wages to be paid, and the grounds on which the individual laborer may be discharged. The demand for larger wages or lessened hours is sometimes made when the conditions of the industry do not justify it, but back of that demand is an ill-defined conviction on the part of the workingman that he has a right to some share in the profits of a business, which so long as he be kept in ignorance of the facts by his employer he is only too apt to exaggerate. So long as the employer regards labor as a commodity to be hired in the cheapest market, the laborer only as a bit of high-priced machinery, and wages as the sum required to keep the machinery in good running order, so long the labor problem will continue to vex us. No schemes will solve it which do not involve a reconstruction of the system in harmony with the democratic spirit and democratic institutions. That involves a recognition by both employer and employed of the idea that they are partners in a common industrial enterprise, and that this partnership gives to each some voice in the control of the business, some knowledge of its affairs, and some share in its profits.

The Spectator

The Spectator's eye was caught not long ago by an article in a New York paper entitled "The Paper that Won't Last." The article told of a petition signed by engravers, lithographers, illustrators, and art lovers of Paris, demanding the passage of a law to compel printers to issue, on a special quality of durable paper, an extra edition of at least two copies of every work published, the same to be deposited with the Minister of the Interior. The object of the petitioners is a most laudable one—to "preserve for posterity" some record of the current art output of this first decade of the twentieth century, since the increasing invasion of wood-pulp paper already encroaches on the sphere of publications of value and menaces permanent literature no less than the "yellow journal." This means, in a longer or shorter period, according to the quality of the paper, deterioration, disintegration, and obliteration.

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The Paris petition amused the Spectator in one respect—that it omitted all reference to authors. Have they not as strong a personal interest as "engravers, lithographers, illustrators, and art lovers" in "handing down their works to future generations"? Is the text really of no great value compared with the illustrations? Or is it the text which illustrates the illustrations, as we are sometimes tempted to believe? But perhaps this omission was merely the slip of the New York space writer—it was a lengthy article, filled with all sorts of information on paper-making except the one thing needful, estimates of the comparative durability of different grades of paper. Very probably the Paris authors were asked to, and did, join in the petition. In this case it was from the author's, or rather the journalist's, standpoint that the matter was first brought to the Spectator's attention. Some two years ago he was dining with a friend, a professor in a university, who was greatly exercised over the plight in which wood-pulp paper would leave the historian of the future. That worthy, when seek-

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ing first-hand material for the story of our day and age, would find no newspaper records in existence to which to turn. The professor added that there had been a little quiet talk among a few college librarians as to the possibility of inducing representative papers in different parts of the country to print on durable paper for preservation a small duplicate edition of each issue, the expense to be borne half by the newspapers and half by the libraries. Except for a minor reference to the matter in one of the magazines, the Spectator has chanced to see nothing about it. He infers, therefore, that the interested librarians have left the historian of the future to his newspaperless fate.

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The first thought that came to the Spectator, apropos of the newspaper's sure extinction, was an obvious one—as doubtless it is the first thought to come to his readers—that the historian of the future is to be congratulated on his luck. The Herculean task—who was it who refrained from calling his task "Herculean" only because he was sure that Hercules would never have ventured to undertake it?—of "going through" even a carefully selected group of representative papers for first-hand impressions of the life of our day and age suffices to give pause even to the enthusiast in patient research. Looked at on another side, who of us would willingly have our life of to-day pictured for posterity as it is reflected in the press, with its garishness, vulgarity, triviality, exaggeration, and lack of perspective? Indeed, on this side it is possible to contemplate the extinction of the newspaper not only with complacency but even with grim satisfaction. On the other hand, the newspaper, even at its worst, is characteristic of the time. It differentiates modern life in the same sense that the trolley or the telephone differentiates it. Immediate and general knowledge of the important happenings of the world, the opportunity to read the details of its gossip and crimes, has made life essentially different in its living, as have increased facilities of personal communication. It is hard for the Spectator, for example, to put himself in a rather recent pre-newspaper age and imagine what it meant for the "fathers of the Revolution"—he has just been reading Woodrow Wilson's History—to stimulate and direct patriotic fervor by means of committees of correspondence. And then the newspaper has driven out the letter-writer, to the distinct loss of history no less than of literature, since informal chronicles of epistolary small-talk have in the past contributed so much of color and value to brighten and illumine the page of history. Indeed, the more the Spectator has turned it over in his mind, the more is he disposed to share the serious anxiety felt by his friend the professor for the historian of the future.

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Incidentally, the Spectator wonders how many of his friends appreciate that the "development" of modern journalism, in its padding, headlining, and "yellowness," is due first of all to the discovery of wood-pulp paper. The drop in price, so the Spectator is told on competent authority, has been from an approximate twelve cents a pound for rag paper to an approximate two cents a pound for wood pulp. This cost reduction has made it possible to put one hundred and fifty tons of wood pulp into the single edition of a metropolitan Sunday issue, which, if printed in a continuous sheet of average size, would be three thousand miles in length. What is the waste in wood thus involved appears from a current statement of the trade, that "it takes an acre of spruce for one Sunday edition of a big metropolitan paper." Thus, as the Spectator figures it, though he does not profess to be an authority or a statistician, wood pulp must inevitably work its own destruction in a not remote future, for the forest supply, large as it is, is already beginning to feel the pressure of the demand, and pulp is said in the trade to be slowly but steadily rising. Indeed, some paper-makers, who are also owners of large tracts, are reported to be buying their pulp and holding the tracts in sure anticipation of a very handsome profit. In this speculation they have but one

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adverse chance to reckon on, that of reciprocity with Canada. There the supply of wood for pulp paper is said to be practically inexhaustible for a generation or so yet.

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The menace of wood-pulp extinction, to hark back to the Paris petition with which the Spectator started, is by no means limited to the newspaper. All our magazines and reviews of every grade, all current novels, the greater part of the ordinary book output, will not, he is assured, be left so far behind in the process of extinction. "And when," asked the Spectator of the well-posted paper man whom he was cross-questioning, "are we to expect the well-filled library shelves of to-day to return to their first emptiness?" "In about fifteen years," was the confident reply. The Spectator, for his part, can by no means accept without reservation the accuracy of this estimate. He turned back to some newspaper files in the early '80's, when wood-pulp paper first began to come into general use, and found that the paper, though yellow and "crumbly," was still in fair condition and that the printing was perfectly legible. Indeed, it has been a matter of surprise to the Spectator, in a cursory look at encyclopædia articles on wood pulp paper (including a formidable array of processes, facts, and figures in the article of the last census), to note how little, if anything, is said of its durability. The soul of the statistician can fairly revel in pages of tables showing "the enormous expansion" of the manufacture between 1880 and 1900. But on what to many of us is a matter of far greater moment, the percentage of loss in a given term of years on one of Mr. Carnegie's investments in a wood pulp library, there seems to be a curious conspiracy of silence. If the worst indeed be true, the Spectator is by no means sure that the dispensation will not be overruled to the furtherance of literature. The making of many books, in the sense of their perpetuation, is thus brought to a definitely delimited end. But whatever is vital, assuredly, will not be permitted to perish for the lack of a special edition on durable paper. The rest can be spared to posterity.

Indian Lands and Fair Play

By George Kennan

ON the 5th of January, 1903, the United States Supreme Court decided, in the case of Lone Wolf *et al.* against Hitchcock, that Congress has full power to abrogate existing Indian treaties, or to violate such treaties without notice to the other parties in interest, and to dispose of Indian reservation lands at its own discretion, regardless of treaty stipulations. The Court assumed, as a matter of course, that Congress would exercise this power "only from considerations of governmental policy, . . . and with perfect good faith to the Indians;" but as to the existence of the power, and the "controlling authority" of Congress, there could be, in the opinion of the Court, no doubt whatever.

Since the announcement of this decision, parties interested in the acquirement of Indian lands in various parts of the West have been urging Congress to throw open Indian reservations to settlement, not "from considerations of governmental policy," but simply because they—the interested parties—want the lands. Two bills providing for the opening up and settlement of parts of Indian reservations have come before the present Congress; and inasmuch as this is the first time that the legislative branch of the Government has attempted to exercise its power under the Lone Wolf decision, and to take away Indian lands without Indian consent, it seems worth while to review the bills and ascertain whether they are consistent with the "perfect good faith to the Indians" which the Court assumed that Congress would observe.

The first measure (H. R. 10,418) is

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entitled "An Act to ratify and amend an agreement with the Sioux tribe of Indians of the Rosebud Reservation, in South Dakota." The clear implication of the title is that the main provisions of the bill, at least, have been submitted to the Rosebud Sioux and have received their approval and assent; but the accompanying report of the Indian Office shows that such is by no means the case. The attempt that was made by Inspector McLaughlin to get the Indians to agree to surrender their lands completely failed, and Commissioner Jones frankly admits that "the bill . . . proposes to open the surplus lands of the Rosebud Indians, situated in Gregory County, for public settlement, and dispose of the same without the consent of the Indians to the terms thereof." The bill, therefore, should have been entitled "An Act to seize all the lands of the Rosebud Indians in Gregory County, South Dakota, and to sell the same to settlers, under the homestead laws, without the Indians' consent and at the prices herein fixed." That would have been an honest title, while the other is misleading and deceptive.

An examination of the bill, and an investigation of the matters to which it relates, seem to show that it is as unfair in intent as it is deceptive in title. It provides that all the lands of the Rosebud Sioux in Gregory County, South Dakota, amounting in the aggregate to 416,000 acres, shall be taken from them without their consent, and shall be sold to settlers under the homestead laws at the "flat" price of three dollars per acre. The Government does not pay for the lands, nor guarantee payment; but acts merely as trustee, and promises to credit the Indians with the proceeds of the sale. The settlers who take the lands are allowed five years in which to complete the purchase, the annual payments being fixed at fifty cents per acre, without interest.

The question whether the Government, in this bill, is dealing honorably and justly with its Indian wards, or not, depends upon the actual value of the land that it takes from them and sells on their account. If the land is worth $5 an acre in the open market and the Government sells it for $3, it manifestly acts unjustly, because its duty, as guardian or trustee, is to protect the interests of its dependent wards, and get as much for their property as possible. If a large part of the land is worth $25 or $30 per acre, and the Government sells it for $3, it commits a gross breach of trust, amounting, in effect, to wholesale robbery.

That much of the Gregory County land of the Rosebud Sioux is worth $25 or $30 per acre, and that the whole tract to be thrown open to settlement would bring an average price of $10 per acre, there seems to be no doubt whatever. Mr. Joseph D. Keller, of the real estate firm of Rathman & Keller, of Bonesteel, South Dakota, says: "There are 416,000 acres of land on the reservation to be opened. Most of it is fine land. Not a mile and a half from the reservation boundary, the other day, we sold a quarter section to a Pierson, Iowa, man for $5,000" ($31 per acre).

The C. A. Johnson Realty Company, of Bonesteel and Fairfax, South Dakota, replying under date of January 26, 1904, to a customer's inquiry with regard to the value of land in Gregory County, said that grazing land was worth $7 per acre, and farming land $25 to $40.

Edwin M. Starcher, of Fairfax, South Dakota—another dealer in real estate—replied to a similar inquiry by saying that "the average price of grazing land in this country runs from $5 to $10 per acre. Improved farms from $25 to $40."

Mr. A. B. Clark, of Rosebud, South Dakota, writes that the reservation land in Gregory County is worth $10 per acre on an average. "Adjoining tracts," he says, "sell for $30 per acre, and the heirs of a Gregory County allottee have a standing offer of $6,000 for one section lying partly in the bluffs of the Missouri. All this tract of (Indian) land lies within the belt of regular rainfall and regular crops, and it is no wonder that some newspapers stated, last summer, that the price was to be $20 per acre. Local editors said that while the land was worth that price, the Indians would get only $2.50 for it."

Indian Commissioner Jones himself

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says, in his report on this bill, that "a considerable portion of these lands is worth perhaps two or three times the amount proposed to be charged homestead settlers therefor." Privately, he has admitted that if the whole tract were offered at competitive sale, it would undoubtedly bring an average price of $10 per acre; and yet, under Congressional pressure, he said, at the end of his report to Secretary Hitchcock, "The Indian Office is of the opinion that the interests of the Indians will be fully conserved" (in this bill), "and that reasonable compensation" ($3 per acre) "will be secured for them for their lands." Upon this report of the Commissioner, Secretary Hitchcock informed the House Committee on Indian Affairs that the Department would offer no objection to the measure.

From the facts above set forth it clearly appears that the first time Congress attempted to avail itself of the power given to it by the Lone Wolf decision—a power which the Court expected it to exercise "with perfect good faith to the Indians"—it tried to take away from the latter at a price of $3 per acre lands that were worth at least $10, and thus to deprive them of about $3,000,000 to which they were equitably entitled. Meanwhile, the Indian Office, whose duty it was to protect the Sioux, acquiesced in the spoliation, and reported to the Secretary of the Interior that the bill would "conserve the interests of the Indians" and give them "reasonable compensation for their lands"!

The case has now been brought to the attention of the President; and inasmuch as he has always shown a disposition to give the Indians "a square deal," there is some reason to hope that when the Rosebud lands are thrown open to settlement, they will be offered at public competitive sale, instead of at a "flat" price, and will thus bring their full market value.

The other Indian land bill that has come before the present Congress (S. 1,490), and that has passed both houses, is entitled "An Act to authorize the sale of a part of what is known as the Red Lake Indian Reservation in the State of Minnesota." This bill purports to be based on an agreement made with the Red Lake Indians by Inspector McLaughlin in March, 1902; but inasmuch as the terms of the agreement do not correspond with the provisions of the bill, this legislation also must be regarded as a taking of Indian lands without Indian consent. On its face, this bill seems to provide for a competitive sale, with allotment of the lands to the highest bidders; but it contains a proviso that "after the first" (competitive) "sale hereunder shall be closed, the lands remaining unsold shall be subject to sale and entry" (under the homestead laws) "at the price of four dollars per acre." The objectionable feature of this bill is its intentional or accidental ambiguity. Instead of saying that the lands shall be offered at competitive sale for a period of six months, or one year, and that thereafter all land unsold shall be subject to sale and entry at the "flat" price of $4 per acre, it seems to provide for an allotment of the lands at $4 *after the first sale.* It is perfectly obvious that if lands worth $10 to $20 an acre are put up at auction for a single day, and if those same lands can be obtained on the following day for $4 "flat," few people will bid at the "first sale." The effect of the bill, therefore, may be to give the whole tract of 256,000 acres to settlers at the "flat" rate, when, if it were disposed of by means of competitive sales, adjourned and continued from time to time at the discretion of the Secretary of the Interior, the whole tract would bring its actual market value. This bill also has been brought to the attention of the President, and his action upon it may perhaps depend upon the opinion of the law officers of the Government as to its real meaning and effect. If its object be honestly to continue the competitive sales from time to time, so as to sell to the highest bidders all the land that the market will take in that way, it is unobjectionable; but its extraordinary ambiguity throws a shadow of suspicion upon its intent. If its effect should be to throw the lands—or the bulk of them—open to settlement at $4 per acre, it would deprive the Red Lake Indians of about $1,500,000 to which they are justly

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entitled. Neither of these two bills should have been approved by the Indian Office and the Secretary of the Interior. One of them was evidently intended to take a large tract of land away from the Indians without giving them adequate compensation, while the other was so loosely drawn as to leave room for a construction that would work great injustice.

Now that the Supreme Court has virtually given Congress full power to take Indian lands without the Indians' consent, attempts will undoubtedly be made in all parts of the West to get possession of desirable Indian reservations; and it is important that the Government —including Congress, the President, and the Interior Department—should decide upon some definite and consistent method of disposing of such Indian lands as it is thought best to throw open to settlement. The Indians have a right to get, and the Government, as their guardian, is bound to see that they do get, the highest market value of the lands that they are forced to give up; and the only equitable way in which that value can be ascertained is by means of public competitive sale to the highest bidders. The Interior Department has already adopted this method in dealing with inherited Indian lands in the Indian Territory, and the results have been in every way satisfactory. One lot of Creek land, for example, near the town of Eufala, which was appraised at $800, recently brought, at competitive sale, $3,500. Another lot, which was appraised at $1,500, attracted nine bidders and was bought at $2,540. If these lands had been sold at their appraised value, or at a "flat" price fixed by Congress, their Indian owners would not have received anything like the amounts that the lands were really worth.

Since the Supreme Court has deprived the Indians of the right, which they formerly had, to protect themselves by refusing to sell their reservations, and has turned them into helpless and dependent wards of the Nation, the Government is bound, by every consideration of honor and equity, to protect them from exploitation, and to deal with their property precisely as a shrewd and honest guardian would deal with the property of a minor ward. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the President will instruct the Secretary of the Interior not to approve, hereafter, any bill for the opening of an Indian reservation that does not provide for a competitive sale of the lands to the highest bidders.

But the moral obligation which the Government is under to protect the interests of its Indian wards is not the only duty that it has in connection with Indian lands. It is equally bound to relieve and protect all of its citizens from unnecessary taxation for Indian education and support. If the sale of Indian lands at their full market value would go a long way toward meeting the expenses of the Indian administration, the people of the United States have a right to ask that they be relieved from taxation for that purpose to just that extent. It is not fair to take out of the United States Treasury, by means of an Indian appropriation bill, money that might just as well be got out of the Indian lands that are thrown open to settlement, if such lands were sold to the highest bidders at competitive sale. If the lands of the Rosebud and Red Lake Indians in South Dakota and Minnesota sell for their full market value when they are thrown open to settlement, they will probably bring $4,500,000 more than they would if disposed of at the flat prices of $3 and $4 per acre specified in these two bills, and will consequently relieve the people of the United States from taxation for Indian support and education to just that amount.

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Studies in Colonial Administration

VI.—The Federated Malay States

By Alleyne Ireland, F.R.G.S.

Colonial Commissioner of the University of Chicago; Author of "Tropical Colonization," etc.

IT is an interesting illustration of the peculiar political character of that mass of States known as the British Empire that in the three protectorates which have fallen under my observation, of which the Federated Malay States is the third, the relations between the sovereign and the subordinate power differ as widely as it is possible for political relations to differ if the thread of a political connection is to remain unbroken.

Sarawak is a British protectorate; and in the internal affairs of Sarawak the British Government has absolutely no voice whatever. Except in regard to its foreign relations that State is as independent of the British Government as the Argentine Republic is of that of Russia.

British North Borneo is a British protectorate; yet the only points of internal administration in regard to which the British Government exercises any control are that the Governor of the territory must be appointed with the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and that laws relating to the management of the natives are subject to the approval of the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

Finally, the Federated Malay States are a British protectorate; and here not an officer above the rank of a junior clerk is appointed, not a law is passed, not a penny raised by taxation or expended in the public service, except with the consent of the British Colonial Secretary in Downing Street.

The origin of British rule in the Malay States is an interesting study, because it represents territorial acquisition (or a degree of control which in fact amounts to that) under circumstances which have always seemed to practical men of action to justify the event, but which to the arm-chair traveler, to the long-distance philanthropist, have always afforded, and still afford, material for painful sermons on the inherent wickedness of all strong nations and the inherent goodness and right-mindedness of all weak native races.

It is a conflict of theories which can never be reconciled, because one side argues from conditions as they are and always have been, the other from conditions as they ought to be and never have been—in a word, from the opposite standpoints of observation and speculation.

The British foothold in the Malay Peninsula antedates the political connection with the Malay States by nearly a hundred years. In 1786 the British East India Company bought the island of Penang, at the northern entrance of the Straits of Malacca, from the Sultan of Kedah. This was followed by the purchase in 1800 of Province Wellesley, on the mainland opposite Penang, by the peaceful cession of the island of Singapore in 1819, and by the acquisition of Malacca from the Dutch in 1824.

The position of the British in the Malay Peninsula from 1825 onward was one of great difficulty. From time immemorial the Straits of Malacca had been infested with Malay pirates; and the navigation of that great highway to the Far East was attended with such imminent dangers that merchant vessels using the Straits carried heavy armaments, and were always prepared to fight their way through. But the Malay pirates were strong, and European ships were frequently captured, their crews murdered, and their cargoes stolen.

With the advent of British rule came the responsibility of keeping the Straits of Malacca open to the ships of all nations, and the constant encounters between British men-of-war and the Malay pirates produced a great deal of friction with the rulers of the Malay

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States, under whose protection many of these pirates carried on their trade.

The situation was further complicated by the fact that Province Wellesley and Malacca had boundaries with native States, and that the peace and welfare of these British settlements were constantly imperiled by the chronic state of disorder into which the native States had fallen through the interminable armed conflicts of dynastic factions and occasional fierce petty wars between the various clans of Chinese miners who had overrun the States in search of tin.

But if, on the one hand, the British Government had occasion to contemplate the adoption of a definite policy of interference in order to put an end to Malay piracy and to terminate the internal disorder of the native States adjoining British territory, on the other hand, three of the native States, Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong, found themselves in such a condition of anarchy that in 1874 their rulers spontaneously applied to the British Government for assistance.

The late Sir Andrew Clarke was sent out from England to adjust matters; and a conference was held, as a result of which, at the request of the three Sultans, British Residents were appointed to their respective courts. In 1887 a group of States known as the Negri Sembilan (literally "the nine States") accepted a British Resident, and in the next year the State of Pahang, on the east coast of the peninsula, followed suit.

It is perfectly clear that the British Government had originally no intention of taking over the entire administration of the Malay States to which British Residents had been appointed in 1874 and in subsequent years. In the course of a correspondence which took place in 1878 between the Governor of the Straits Settlements and the Residents of Perak and Selangor, the duties of the Residents are clearly defined.

"His Excellency," writes the Colonial Secretary, "desires that you should be reminded that the Residents have been placed in the native States as advisers, not as rulers." And in a later despatch in the same year (1878), "You will observe that in continuing the residential system, her Majesty's Government defines the functions of the Resident to be the giving of influential and responsible advice to the ruler."[1]

As time passed, however, it became apparent that if those reforms were to be effected through which alone the native States could be brought to a condition of tranquil prosperity, it would have to be through the instrumentality of a staff of European administrators. Among the natives themselves there did not exist a body of men capable of understanding the principles of sound administration, much less of carrying those principles out in practice.

Although the States on the western side of the peninsula enjoyed under their native rulers a somewhat better government than that under which those on the eastern side suffered, yet the following description of the administration of Pahang, written in 1888 by Mr. J. P. Rodger, C.M.G., at present Resident of Perak, but at that time resident of Pahang, serves as a graphic description of what the native States were before the appointment of British Residents:

> A system of taxation under which every necessary as well as every luxury of life was heavily taxed; law courts in which the procedure was the merest mockery of justice, the decisions depending solely on the relative wealth or influence of the litigants, and where the punishments were utterly barbarous; a system of debt-slavery under which not only the debtor but his wife and their most remote descendants were condemned to hopeless bondage; an unlimited *corvée*, or forced labor for indefinite periods and entirely without remuneration; the right of the Raja to compel all female children to pass through his harem—such are some of the more striking examples, although the list is by no means exhaustive, of administrative misrule in a State within less than twenty-four hours of Singapore. The condition of the Pahang ryot may be briefly expressed by stating that he had practically no rights, whether of person or property, not merely in his relations with the Raja, but even in those with his immediate District Chief.

With that fuller knowledge of the conditions in the native States which followed the appointment of the Residents, a perfectly clear issue arose for the consideration of the British Government.

[1] For the benefit of students I may say that the correspondence referred to and other important correspondence on the subject of British policy in the Malay Peninsula may be found in the British Parliamentary Papers C. 1512 of 1876, and C. 2410 of 1879.

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Having discovered that the mere presence of an advising agent at the native courts would be completely ineffective in so far as any substantial reforms were concerned, or for the achievement of those ends which the Sultans had in view when they asked for the appointment of British Residents, two possible courses of action presented themselves.

The British Government might have withdrawn its Residents, on the ground that they were performing no work of permanent usefulness, and might have accompanied this action by a warning to the native rulers that if they did not, on their own initiative, relieve the Straits Settlements of the dangers incident to disorder in the Peninsula, the British Government would step in with its own forces, put an end to the unsatisfactory conditions, and exact such guarantees for the future as might appear necessary.

The alternative was to extend gradually the powers of the Residents, to increase the European staff, and, while interfering as little as possible with the social customs of the people, and not at all with their religious affairs, to secure step by step the complete control of the administration.

Of these two policies the British Government wisely adopted the latter. It has been carried out with infinite skill and tact, and with results, as will be shown later, which place the work done by the British in the Malay Peninsula on a level with the finest achievements of a race which has had a greater and wider success than any other in the field of colonial administration.

The father of the residential system in British Malaya was Sir Andrew Clarke; the system was nursed in its infancy by Sir Hugh Low; but it is to the genius of Sir Frank Swettenham, who as early as 1875 was Deputy Commissioner of Perak, and who has been connected in one capacity or another ever since that date with the administration of the Malay States, that the remarkable success of the British rule in the Federated Malay States is chiefly due.

Until the year 1895 the four States (Perak, Selangor, the Negri Sembilan, and Pahang) were administered entirely independently of one another; but in that year, as a result of much careful deliberation, it was decided that these States should be federated for administrative purposes, and that a Federal Staff should be appointed under a Resident-General.

The Treaty of Federation was signed in July, 1895. It provided for (*a*) federation for administrative purposes, with an undertaking to render mutual assistance; (*b*) the appointment of a Resident-General, as the agent and representative of the British Government, *whose advice the Malay rulers agreed to accept in all matters of administration* other than those touching the Mohammedan religion; (*c*) the organization of a force of Indian troops to be available for service in any part of the Malay Peninsula, or, if necessary, in Singapore.

The position of the Federated Malay States is rendered peculiar from two circumstances—one that the greater part of the world's tin supply is drawn from these States, the other that the native Malay population absolutely refuses to perform manual labor under any conditions whatever.

In 1902, out of a total export trade valued at $71,350,000, tin represented $61,689,000, or more than eighty-six per cent. of the whole.

The total revenue of the States in the same year amounted to $20,550,000. If from this sum we deduct such items as railway, postal, and telegraph receipts, fines and fees of court, reimbursements, interest on State bank balances, land sales, and fees of office, we get down to a revenue from taxation proper of $16,500,000. Of this sum, tin, produced entirely by Chinese miners, paid as export duty $8,439,000; and the opium, spirit, and gambling licenses realized $3,726,000, of which sum fully ninety-five per cent. was eventually paid by the Chinese miners.

So we find in the Federated Malay States this extraordinary condition of affairs, that out of a total revenue from taxation of $16,500,000, raised in a Malay country, $12,000,000, or nearly 74 per cent., is secured from the industry of Chinese immigrants and from their vices.

As far as my own observation extends

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I should say that the Malay of the Peninsula is the most steadfast loafer on the face of the earth. His characteristics in this respect have been recognized by every one who has come in contact with him. He will work neither for himself, for the Government, nor for private employers. He builds himself a house of bamboo and attaps, plants enough rice to fill out the menu which stream and forest afford him, and for nine-tenths of his waking hours, year in and year out, he sits on a wooden bench in the shade and watches the Chinaman and the Tamil build roads and railways, work the mines, cultivate the soil, raise cattle, and pay the taxes. As all his desires are completely satisfied by this kind of life, you can make no appeal to him for industry.

The Resident-General, in his annual report for 1902, says: "The Government, with a system of taxation which barely touches the Malay, raises a large revenue and incurs a large expenditure in developing the resources of the country by means of roads, railways, irrigation works, and so forth. But the labor force engaged in their execution is supplied almost entirely by foreign coolies under the superintendence of foreign engineers and superintendents. The Malay, with his rooted disinclination to steady work of any kind, will neither give his work to the Government undertakings, nor to mines or plantations. It is difficult even to induce him to serve as a policeman. With the advantage of a splendid climate the natives might grow rice and rear stock for the ready market provided by the Chinese miners; but this they have failed to do, and a large part of the fishing industry even is in the hands of the Chinese. Domestic servants, washermen, messengers, gardeners, and grooms are foreigners."

What a picture of a people! Too lazy to be policemen—too lazy to fish!

The Federated Malay States have not been exempt from the operation of that economic law which decrees that when in any country which contains economic supplies of which the world stands in need, and the working of which will afford a reasonable profit to capital, the natives refuse to work, a flow of immigration will set in composed of persons of alien races who are willing, for a fair wage, to bring to the aid of nature the industry of man.

Taking the figures of the census of 1901, and omitting from our calculation the State of Pahang (the economic development of which has only just commenced), we find that the three remaining States of the Federation had a population of 570,454, exclusive of floating population and prisoners, and that of this total 61 per cent. were foreign immigrants, chiefly Chinese, and only 39 per cent. were Malays.[1]

The lesson contained in these figures is too obvious to require comment.

In like circumstances, a Government will always be faced with the labor problem, and it admits of only three solutions. If the natives refuse to work, as they have refused in all times in every tropical country the development of which has been undertaken by Europeans or Americans, the first alternative is to abandon the country and thus rob the world of that economic contribution which it has a right to expect from every territory which Nature has endowed with economic resources; the next is to adopt the method which made Java the most flourishing of all tropical colonies, that is to say, force the natives to work by prescribing a certain number of days of labor in the year for each native and visiting a default with severe penalties; and the final alternative is to leave the native alone and bring in outsiders who will do the work.

Passing now to the system of administration in the Federated Malay States, we find conditions not differing greatly from those which exist in a British Crown Colony. Each State is governed by a State Council composed of the Sultan, the British Resident, the Secretary to the Resident, a number of Malay chiefs, and one or more prominent Chinamen to represent the interests of the Chinese community.

As the members of the Council hold

[1] The total combined area of the Federated Malay States is 26,300 square miles, and the total population 678,595 (census of 1901), composed of 299,739 Chinese, 285,278 Malays, 58,000 natives of India, 18,000 aborigines, 7,000 Javanese, 1,422 Europeans and Americans, 1,522 Eurasians, and a small balance of other races, prisoners, and floating population.

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their seats by appointment and not by election, and as no law is submitted to the Council for enactment until it has been approved by the High Commissioner (a position which attaches to that of Governor of the Straits Settlements) and by the British Secretary of State for the Colonies, it is evident that there is here no greater independence of legislation than is enjoyed in a Crown Colony.[1]

The existence of the Resident-General and the Federal officers is an advantage which the Crown Colonies do not possess. The Federal establishment consists of a Resident-General, a Federal Secretary, a Judicial Commissioner, a Legal Adviser, a Commandant of the Military Forces, a Commissioner of Lands and Mines, a Director of Public Works, a Commissioner of Police, a General Manager of Railways, a Secretary for Chinese Affairs, an Inspector of Prisons, an Inspector of Schools, and a Government Pathologist.

The Resident-General is really an Executive Council of One, and he is also the official adviser to the High Commissioner. Most of the other members of the Federal Staff, in addition to the performance of their specific duties in connection with strictly Federal work, act as advisers in their several departments to the officers in the service of the separate States.

Not the least important result of the appointment of the Federal Staff has been the gradual introduction of that uniformity of administrative methods and that continuity of policy without which Federation would have failed of half its usefulness.

At the present time the administrative force of the Federated Malay States is recruited under the cadet system, the examination, which is identical with that for the Indian civil service, being held in London each year. But in the early days a civil service had to be created in block; and I may say, with no disparagement of the cadets, who, as a rule, after a few years' training make excellent officials, that no one could visit the States to-day without being struck by the remarkably high character of that section of the civil service which was recruited by selection before the introduction of the cadet system. In no part of the world with which I am familiar have I seen men more devoted to their work, more closely identified with the success of the administration, or more keenly interested in everything which relates to the progress and development of the States in whose service they are laboring.

And what has British rule achieved for the Malay States? It has given the native security of life and property; it has abolished slavery and the exaction of unpaid labor; it has established permanent land titles; it has provided free education and free hospital treatment and medicine for all; it has exterminated piracy; it has put an end to the recurrent scourges of smallpox and cholera; it has constructed over a thousand miles of metaled road; it has built *out of current revenue* three hundred miles of railway which carried nearly four million passengers in 1902, and earned in ten years a net revenue of over seven million dollars; it has, perhaps unwisely, left the native practically untaxed; it has afforded ample opportunity to the Malay of entering the Government service and of acquiring wealth by the exercise of ordinary industry; it has raised the revenue of the States from $400,000 in 1875 to $20,500,000 in 1902; it has in the same time increased the foreign trade of the States from $1,500,000 to $117,000,000; it has kept the peace and maintained the law. This is a record of which any nation might be proud.

Kuala Lumpur, State of Selangor,
Malay Peninsula.

[1] For a description of Crown Colony government see the article on Hongkong in this series, The Outlook, November 29, 1902.

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Old Virginia Society

By Emilie W. McVea

IN the early part of the last century there flourished in eastern Virginia a society, the oldest upon the American soil, and by reason of its isolation more unique and more conservative than the English society of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries out of which it grew. Novelists have given glowing pictures of the magnificent homes of the Virginia planter, of his innumerable slaves, his dictatorial power, his pleasure-loving life; and the aged survivors of the old régime, by their highly colored reminiscences of the golden days of their childhood, have aided the novelist in kindling the imagination of succeeding generations until the splendor of Southern life has become a tradition.

The recently published "Life and Letters of Robert Lewis Dabney," one of the foremost men of his State and a typical Southerner, will go far toward giving the world a truer idea of the Virginia aristocracy and of Southern life. The author, Dr. Thomas Cary Johnson, of Union Theological Seminary, Richmond, Virginia, pictures the hardships and disadvantages as well as the pleasures and attractions of the planter's life; and his sane and convincing story will materially aid the future historian in reconstructing a society which completely disappeared with the Civil War.

Dr. Dabney was a type of the best and most influential class of Southern men, and the story of his life is interesting not only as a fine character study but as representative of East Virginia society during the first half of the nineteenth century. He was reared in surroundings unostentatious but cultivated, among people of true pride of birth, wielding a dangerous power with moderation, interested in statesmanship, and willing to make sacrifice of time and money for the good of the State. The three classes of society in Virginia were distinct, and the organization of the State was aristocratic. The planters were of English stock enlivened by Huguenot and Scotch blood. "Their tastes were those of the English gentry; their hospitality, their pride of kinship, their insistence upon primogeniture, their sports and dissipations, as well as their names, traditions, and genealogies, proclaim their kinship to the English." Nor can it be doubted that very many of the best of the ancient yeomanry of southern England came from merchants, middle-class men, and mechanics, who rise so rapidly in a new country. The Huguenots, who were generally of the middle class, tended everywhere to the top. These planters constituted the gentry and formed the governing class. Below them socially were small freeholders and mechanics who had in the towns and villages large shops for iron and woodwork. On the poorer country land lived the descendants of redemptioners or convicts, who formed separate neighborhoods of their own and eked out a scanty living by hard labor. The large population of negro slaves for the most part held themselves much above the "poor white trash," and the house negro especially gloried in the wealth and importance of his master. In contrast with our modern palaces the homes then thought magnificent appear bare and comfortless. Some of the wealthiest of the planters lived in great style and owned beautiful and handsomely furnished colonial mansions, but for the most part the houses were comfortable but plain. "Many of them were cottages, a story and a half, the upper half having no fireplace, but supposed to be good enough to serve as sleeping-rooms for the boys and young men. Many were of two stories; some were heavy and square in plan; others had the general shape of the letter "H," that is, one house was situated beside the other and they were connected by a two-storied hallway. The architecture was very plain—the kind, however, that is now classed as Colonial. The furniture within the house was simple—a solid mahogany table in the hallway, with a solid silver water-pitcher thereon, ready

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with its cooling contents for the thirsty guest, and perhaps a strip of carpet on the well-waxed floor. In the parlor were sofas and chairs of mahogany and horsehair, with a "what-not" in the corner for the curiosities, a family portrait or so, and a sampler worked by some ancestress famed for her needle. In the bedrooms were rag carpets, or none at all. The furniture in most constant use was such as the country mechanics could make out of the native walnut, chestnut, cherry, and poplar. Behind the dwelling stood the kitchen with its broad hearths, ovens, spits, and spiders, its wide-mouthed chimney with crooks, cranes, and swinging kettles. The smokehouse and the weaver's house were hard by, and in the rear of these the cabins of the servants. In a corner of the front yard was the office, where the planter kept his books of accounts, his fishing and hunting outfit, and into which young men were crowded when the house overflowed with guests. At a distance to the rear stood the stables, barns, and other offices. The lawns were neatly kept, were large and studded with oaks or locusts. The houses were placed on the highest elevation so that they might have the full benefit of the grateful breezes during the long southern summers, and were usually approached by avenues of stately oaks. These home places were often named for the native place of the family in England or from some local peculiarity: Shirley, Brandon, Aldingham, Red Hill, The Mount, The Grove, and by these names they were known far and wide.

Robert Lewis Dabney's father owned two rather small plantations, his mills, and between twenty and thirty negroes. In order to provide for his family and servants, industry and economy were necessary. As a member of the county court and of the Legislature, and as Colonel of the militia, Colonel Dabney of Louisa, the father of Robert Lewis, was undoubtedly the leading man of his county, for at this time these positions were given only to men of weight and prominence; his case was typical. Whatever may have been the condition on large plantations in the South, the gentlemen of East Virginia were not corrupted by wealth, nor were they idlers. Inevitable ruin and suffering came if the master was not unceasingly diligent. Supplies of all kinds must come from the plantation itself, and every plantation was a miniature town; "weaving never stopped, and the sound of the spinning-wheels and looms could be heard throughout the year. Tanning, blacksmithing, and the simpler kinds of woodworking were constantly on hand, the more important operations being directed by white mechanics, half-journeyman, half-foreman, who went from plantation to plantation." Besides these mechanical industries clothes must be provided for half a hundred people and provisions must be stored in large quantities. Every man, woman, and child on Colonel Dabney's plantation was fed from his own kitchen. The constant supervision and these multifarious duties bore heavily upon both the master and the mistress of the home. The modern young woman of the South, who studies domestic science in a well-equipped laboratory, probably thinks that her grandmother had no training in household economics. The lady of the olden time knew nothing of microbes and could not talk learnedly about sanitation, but nevertheless she was a past-mistress in the practical arts of supervision and of home-making. She "carried the keys" of the pantry, storehouse, and smoke-house; ordered every meal, and apportioned supplies for the house and for the servants. The large kitchen, with its huge open fireplace, its great ovens, and its scores of shining pots and pans, was a scene of hustling activity and of masterly generalship. The mistress of the house made her morning rounds, her keys jingling in her key-basket, selected the meat from the smoke-house, overlooked the provisions in the great storeroom, gave out supplies, ordered the meals, and then often busied herself in the "pantry" mixing up with her own hands some special dainty. Supplies given out and dinner planned, "Aunt Calline" or "Aunt Minervy" entered upon another glorious day of "bossing." She was par excellence the general of the kitchen. Her head "done up" in a red and yellow bandanna, dressed in

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stout linsey-woolsey, arms akimbo, she issued commands to her numerous helpers, urged on the idle in tones which would have curdled the blood of every little pickaninny had he not been sure that the soft heart would never carry out the direful threats. "Jes' look at dat Eph! Boy, ef you doan tek de bellus an' blow up dat fire quick, I gwine brek eve'y bone in yo' good-for-nothin' body." Such a spluttering and hissing went on in the busy place, and such delicious odors stole from the roasting and baking! Two or three black boys were always in readiness as "runners" to take in the batter-cakes and waffles smoking hot to the "big house," and in a corner of the wide chimney another ebony-faced youngster turned the spit on which hung the fowl or the huge roast of meat. The orderliness of the kitchen and the lack of friction were due to the wise management of "ole Miss'." She herself was an adept in making jellies, cordials, and other toothsome delicacies for the sick. She it was, too, who overlooked the housemaids and saw that the waxed floors, the heavy furniture, the silver and glass, were always shining and well polished. The vegetable and flower gardens were her special province, and the old-fashioned roses, jonquils, and pinks bloomed in profusion under her loving care and were the brightest ornament of the parlor and dining-room. To the servants "ole Miss'," as they invariably called her, was both doctor and head nurse. She ministered to them in sickness and comforted them in sorrow. The typical Southern lady was firmly religious and sympathetic, with a delicate and dignified reserve. Her education was simple and her reading good, though limited. Her voice was low and sweet, her accent and English pure and choice, and she would have been shocked at the slovenliness in conversation now so often heard from ladies of position. Many portraits of these graceful, tender women, a little prim but very charming, are preserved as the most precious possessions of the descendants of the early East Virginia families.

This culture and dignity, united with extreme simplicity in dress and manners, frequently mystified travelers from the large Northern cities. Dr. Dabney loved to tell the story of the rather supercilious New Yorker who was once entertained by a Richmond pastor. The great Virginia State Agricultural Society was in session, and the divine took the young man to one of the meetings of that noted body. On their return he asked the New Yorker, "What thought you of our Dr. McGuffey?" He answered, "Oh, of course I was charmed with the discourse; it was a model of scientific clearness, but entirely above the comprehension of that audience of clodhoppers." The Richmond man said, "So you think that it is an audience of clodhoppers?" "Yes, of course, or at least of yeomen. Their general aspect of plainness and rusticity confirms me in this." To his intense surprise, the youth discovered that one of the "clodhoppers" was Edmund Ruffin, the foremost regenerator of Southern agriculture, an eminent man of science, author and editor, the owner of inherited acres and a princely revenue, and that another was Franklin Minor, an elegant classicist and the owner of the splendid estate of Ridgeway. To add to his confusion, he met, the same night, the clodhoppers and their wives and daughters at a brilliant formal reception, and found, instead of the rusticity which he expected, a most elegant and graceful assemblage. And he said, in his astonishment, "I never saw so many accomplished women in one set of parlors, so marked by gentle dignity, affability, and culture."

The author of the life of Dr. Dabney dwells upon the strong political instincts of the Virginian, the natural Anglo-Saxon inheritance; upon the loyalty to State which played so vital a part in the later history of the Nation. Oratory was a much-prized art, and lawyers expended earnest study and eloquence upon cases which would now be considered trivial. A deep love for their profession, and a willingness to sacrifice time and comfort for the public weal, produced men like Patrick Henry, John Marshall, and James Madison. The meeting of the county court took the place of social clubs, of county fairs, and of political conventions. "The sessions of the court were attended by

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a great body of freeholders. They came for the transaction not only of legal business but various other business, or for purposes of sports or fisticuffs. Around or in front of every court-house was a green, usually well sodded and set with trees, where the politicians harangued the voters, and where a multitude swarmed on court days. There the farmer exchanged his produce for the goods of the merchants, settled his taxes, and heard the discussion of the current topics of the day. The large planter mingled freely with his poorer and perhaps less aristocratic neighbors. The Jew was there with his peddler's pack, and the Yankee with clocks and other goods. The office-seeker was, of course, there, shaking hands with anxious and oily suavity. It was a great time for horse-trading and for the fighting of bullies. The lawyers—the principal politicians of the time—found the very best arena in which to exploit their talents at the county court. Whether the great lawyers—and there were great lawyers in those days—expounded the legal principle applicable to some petty case, or harangued on the court-house green on a political topic, the minds of these freeholders were helpfully stirred and informed."

Politics was a serious business, and men held office for the public good and not for private advancement. The State was the expression of the law, the fountain of honor, the embodiment of all the civic virtues, and her sons in honor owed her free service. The relations between public men and their supporters were intimate, and this personal loyalty made the elections hot.

The recreations and amusements of planters were vigorous and rather primitive. Hunting, fishing, boxing, and occasionally even fighting, filled the leisure moments. Fox-hunting was the hereditary sport, and brought the keenest thrill of excitement. The pack of hounds were made up from a number of plantations, and a noble, straight-away run of an "old red" would arouse two counties. The clear cry of the hounds and the signaling horns sounding through leafy coverts and over silent fields reached the houses and brought together a throng of eager sportsmen. The country was rough, wooded, and threaded with streams, and the riding was hard and dangerous. The hunters were often over twelve hours in the saddles, and as ladies could take no part in such violent sport, the "meet" of the olden time lacked one of the most attractive features of the modern English hunt. The small boys of the plantation were at an early age initiated by the older negro boys into the mysteries and delights of gunning, and the crisp October air resounded to the crack! crack! of the rifle and to the whir of the partridge. The more gently disposed members of the family found the pools of running water in the deep recesses of the woods alluring, and during the fishing season, when the fisherman's luck was good, the anglers returned from their day's sport with great bunches of trout and perch.

During the winter days reading was a source of pleasure and entertainment. Libraries were small but well selected. Shakespeare and Addison always had a place in a gentleman's library, but Pope, Cowper, and Milton were the favorite poets. The collection usually included Scott's novels, standard books of history, works on agriculture, political economy, politics, and religion, Blackstone, some Latin classics, and French stories and plays. These books were known thoroughly, and the over-formal letters and diaries of the old planters reflect the pompous style of Samuel Johnson. A reading of the John Blair Dabney manuscript, extant in the Dabney family, provokes a smile at the scraps of Horace and the Johnsonian English used by the dignified old gentleman. Bookworms were occasionally found even among the women, and at Aldingham, the home of Colonel Charles Dabney of Hanover, a depression of the floor was long pointed out made by the foot-patting of an unwieldy old sister of his as she sat reading at this favorite spot year in and year out.

Notwithstanding the love of outdoor sports and fondness for reading, hospitality and social intercourse were the great recreations. The planters were a stay-at-home people, and rarely went beyond

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their counties; their lives were isolated and their days largely spent with slaves. Any traveler was welcomed, and if he were a man of education and solid talk his visit was looked upon as a benefaction. Serious conversation was cultivated, and politics, agriculture, and country interests were usually the topics of discourse. The conversation of these men of mark was a distinct educational factor in the lives of the young boys, who from their earliest years were accustomed to hear acute opinions on politics, religion, and social obligations. Modes of thought, customs, and manners were traditional. Little Robert Lewis Dabney was a grave and attentive listener to the conversation of his father and his father's friends, and the early impressions thus acquired were never obliterated.

The lawyers were the most influential of the professional classes, and next in importance were the clergy and teachers. After the collapse of the established church religious organizations spread rapidly through eastern Virginia and filled the country with small churches. The ministers were men of education, culture, and piety, and made a deep impression upon the life of the people; infidelity, immorality, and intemperance declined and education and material prosperity followed as a natural consequence. The minister was welcomed everywhere, took his place among the gentry, and was the friend and adviser of his parishioners. The church members were widely separated and many lived in remote country places, but the hard journeys were cheerfully undertaken by pastors as accustomed to the saddle as one of our Western cowboys, and the visit of the minister was the great event. He was entertained with true Virginia hospitality, always given the best that the house afforded, and in return he brought not only spiritual uplift, but a grateful breath from a larger world. The Presbyterian ministers were especially noted for piety and learning, and of these none was more beloved and venerated than Robert Lewis Dabney. His letters to his wife written while on his trips are full of interesting descriptions of people and places. He especially commended the good sense of many of the richer country people for their simple way of living, and on one occasion gave an inventory of the furniture in his room at the home of a farmer of large property: "One sycamore bedstead, worth about $4.50, with shuck mattress, calico counterpane, etc.; three calico window-curtains, three split-bottom chairs, home-made; one neat, two-ply carpet, one *little*, *little* pine washstand, one white delf wash-bowl, smallest size; one brown-stone pitcher, same material of the common crocks; one little looking-glass on a pine dressing-table, worth about $1.50; one pine cupboard. *All cleah.* All good enough. His coat and pantaloons cost about $2.75 per yard, coarse gray cloth. *All* the ladies of the family in calico, except Mrs. ——, who, being poor, was finer. She had on a black stuff dress in the evening, and white cambric wrapper in the morning. Now this is the way rational people live, who are really rich. Mr. Harrison says that he about lives on his income, and in educating his boys has been obliged to contract some debts. Now here is a truthful picture from *real life*. Harrison's land is worth about $40,000, and his personal estate as much more, say $80,000; and here is the sort of thing which a rational, experienced man, of highest social standing, thinks that fortune will justify."

Teaching was also a most important vocation. There were schools for young ladies where they were "finished" in French, English composition, arithmetic, and other branches of an old-fashioned female education. No public schools existed, but the tuition of very poor children was paid by a literary fund. "The barefooted sons of the gentry and yeomanry attended the same schools and were all well birched according to the ancient English custom." The teachers were often college-bred young men who looked to a later career as lawyer or minister. Their methods were direct and vigorous, and Latin and mathematics were instilled into the youthful mind with the frequent assistance of a stout hickory. The subjects taught were few, but the teaching was thorough, and the boys of that day read and wrote Latin and knew their Euclid far better

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than their successors. Many of the older teachers were clergymen, and the Presbyterian ministers frequently prepared young planters for college.

The vice of the age was drinking. In colonial society there had been much dissipation and looseness of morals, and it took a long time for a higher morality to assert itself. The lack of excise taxes and license made liquor cheap, and a great deal of whisky, apple brandy, and heavy sweet wines was consumed. Early in the nineteenth century "treating" was universal. Tradition tells us that the father of Mrs. Charles Dabney of Louisa set a whole barrel of liquor on the court green of Hanover County for the refreshment of the honest freeholders who believed in Federalistic principles, and who intended to vote for John Marshall as Congressman. Under such circumstances it can be readily imagined that elections were not tame, and that rowdyism was frequent. On the courthouse green during court week bullies and champions had frequent fierce fisticuffs, with small interference from their Honors of the bench. But the drinking was most excessive around the courthouse, and was unusual among the better class of planters. Even in early times a strong element existed with high ideals of self-respect and dignity of character which protested strongly against the drinking and excesses indulged in by the lower classes and by the extremely fashionable, and the sentiment of these solid and influential men gradually ameliorated manners and customs.

Such was the society of eastern Virginia during the first half of the nineteenth century. It had its serious limitations. Individualism was excessive, provincialisms marked, the people were often domineering and passionate; but they were racy of the soil, gallant, chivalrous, guarding jealously their honor and the honor of their State.

How Books Achieve Circulation

By George P. Brett

THERE appears to have arisen in the publishing trade in recent times a new theory and practice in the exploitation of novels and other books, a theory which seems to lose sight of past experience and to savor of the methods of advertising hitherto used chiefly in the making known of the excellences of patent medicines and other similar wares.

This new publishing practice seems to be the outcome of a theory that it is merely necessary to make the title of a book known by means of advertising and its author's personality familiar to newspaper readers, in order to make the work in question successful from the standpoint of sale and in demand for general reading, without any regard to the book's real appeal to the reading public, whether from the standpoint of interest, real value as literature, or the imparting of useful information.

It may be confessed that at the outset the "new method" has been attended with some success, and in one or two cases, where the method was used to exploit novels of no particular goodness or the reverse, extraordinary sales have followed, especially where the novels so exploited followed on the heels of really popular books, and especially also when these latter were imitated by the successors in question.

The success which attended the movement in these cases led to its adoption by many publishers, and finally to the exploiting of all novels in the same manner, the only results finally attained being an increase of expense on the part of the publishers for advertising, the filling of the columns of the daily and weekly newspapers with inane and often offensive personalities about authors and their works, and a general weariness on the part of the reading public which acquired such dimensions that even able reviews of books published in our best newspapers came to be passed over as worthless by the readers of these journals.

The results attained by the "new

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method"—now happily, I believe, on the wane—recall very forcibly an original observation by one of the deepest thinkers that our public life has produced, now become trite from oft quotation, to the effect that it is difficult to "take in" the public all the time—a remark which has also been applied to Wall Street methods and which might be used, it would seem, with particular appropriateness there at the present time.

The fact seems to be that the so-called reading public is not, by any means, a constant quantity. A "David Harum" or a "Richard Carvel" is published, and in some unexplained manner hundreds of thousands of readers buy and enjoy their reading, and the appetite for reading is fostered, and finds new adherents. The publishers, alive to the increased number of readers, "exploit" a book unworthy of large circulation and uninteresting from the standpoint of the reading public, and, as has been pointed out above, the public gets taken in, and worthless books find a short-lived unusual circulation, with the result that thousands of people who would otherwise become habitual readers are turned in other directions for amusement and instruction. The periodical turning out of the "lambs" in Wall Street is accomplished by somewhat similar methods. It is also a fact to be noted here that the amount of money spent by the publishers in exploiting "David Harum" and "Richard Carvel" was not nearly so great as that since used in "booming" novels that have not enjoyed one-tenth of their sale.

If the first part of this article seems to belie its title, and to show rather how books do *not* acquire circulation than how they do acquire it, it is nevertheless my intention to endeavor to point out some facts in the matter which may tend to throw some light upon it, and it may be best to do this by taking some examples from arts or trades which have similar aims to that of book publishing; viz., the amusement or instruction of the general public.

If the reader has had the good fortune (or he may consider it the reverse of good fortune if he happens to be a reformer) to be a resident of Greater New York, at any time during the last month, at any hour of the day or night, his ears will have been assailed with a certain popular song, the name or words of which I will not give for fear of advertising it. The carouser, going along the otherwise quiet street at midnight, sings it, the messenger-boys whistle it at all hours, and the parlor-maid hums it in the morning as she dusts and breaks the bric-à-brac. Whence comes it? How is it acquired? It has never been advertised, so far as I am able to find out, and the newspapers have never given it more than passing mention, and those who are familiar with the song do not, I am certain, in the majority of cases, know the name of the not very popular play from which it is taken.

It may be said, of course, that a song, and particularly a popular song sung by the masses, is not a book; that the masses do not read books. Let us, therefore, take other instances.

There is, at the present time, on the boards of one of our principal theaters, a play which is being presented nightly to crowded houses, in a theatrical season counting fewer successes and more failures than any, perhaps, in the recent history of the stage. When this play first appeared, the critics damned it with faint praise; it has been advertised only as other plays are advertised, about two inches of space in the crowded page of theatrical announcements; yet the performance is crowded nightly, and with audiences composed for the most part not of the regular habitués of our theaters.

In the winter of 1882, Mr. F. Marion Crawford, who has, I believe, published more novels that have met with wide success and popularity than any other living writer, brought out his first novel, "Mr. Isaacs." Its early history is curious and very pertinent, I think, to the points I am trying to establish.

At that time I was a beginner in a publishing house and occupied the position of country salesman, visiting booksellers in the country east of the Mississippi. "Mr. Isaacs" having been brought in manuscript to my firm by Mr. Sam Ward, whose protégé I had

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been as a boy and young man, and whose friendship I enjoyed until his death, I was naturally anxious that his nephew's novel should succeed, and staked what little reputation I had on its sale, with the result that I induced my friends, the booksellers, to take almost the entire first edition. Unfortunately for me for the moment, "Mr. Isaacs" did not find its public at once, and the enormous popularity and sale which it afterward enjoyed began only after it had been published some little time. The early reviews were not particularly favorable, and my firm, having apparently made up its mind that the novel was unsuccessful, ceased advertising it, and my next call or visit to my bookselling friends was rendered unpleasant by the number of copies of the book unsold on their counters—and yet, as I have already pointed out, "Mr. Isaacs" eventually found an enormous public and became the topic of conversation among all classes.

Few people, probably, to-day read Bellamy's "Looking Backward," which, nevertheless, remains perhaps the best story of its class, and was for many months more read and talked of than any novel of its time, its sale probably having reached half a million copies. Yet, on publication, it met only a lukewarm reception, and, passing from the hands of one publisher to another, was not pushed as some recent novels have been. Its sale, notwithstanding, was so large that I have been told that its original publisher, who went out of business, could have paid all his debts from the profits of this one book, if it had found its public at once on publication.

No recent book has repeated, I think, in the course of its publication, the experience of Mrs. Ward's "Robert Elsmere," which was given away as a premium with a bar of soap—common washing soap at that—and the incident, though amusing, is not, perhaps, particularly apropos of our theme, which is to show how books achieve circulation; yet "Robert Elsmere" is, nevertheless, an excellent example for our purpose. Published before the days of international copyright, its American publishers had little incentive to make it popular, to do so being merely to run the risk of piracy. Yet of their comparatively expensive edition tens of thousands of copies were sold, and in the various pirated editions which afterwards appeared the book must have circulated upwards of a million copies, and without advertising or exploitation of any kind in the modern sense of the word.

I do not mean for a moment to decry the value of judicious advertising or the value of careful reviewing in furthering the sale of books, but to maintain that the most that either or both of these can do is to introduce a book to the beginning of its circle of readers, and to assert that most of the present exploitation of books is in fact a detriment to their sale, and that it tends, moreover, as I have pointed out above, to the narrowing of the possible circle of readers for all books.

The publisher of a book introduces it to its first circle of readers, and the sale the book finally achieves depends almost altogether upon its contents and its interest for the reading public, just as the song cited above achieved popularity by its melody and its timeliness, and the play by some inherent quality which the public discovered for itself; in other words, it seems likely that the most effective, and, indeed, only really effective, advertising that a book gets is the opinion formed of it by its readers and repeated in the case of a strong and virile book from mouth to mouth in increasing circles of readers.

A publisher of a book, then, really does little more for it than, having given it an appropriate and suitable dress, to introduce it to that section of the reading public most likely to be interested in its particular theme at that time; and it is here that the publisher's judgment and experience are of the utmost value to the author and to the public, in that, through his knowledge of the conditions of the trade and associations of years' standing, he is able to find a public for a book which would be otherwise unattainable. In this connection it may be pointed out that the imprints of different publishers vary very greatly in value, the reading public having learned by experience that some publishers' names are

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usually associated with books of real merit or solid worth, and that other publishers' names are, possibly, no criterion of knowledge or understanding of either of these qualities.

It stands to reason, therefore, that a book has greater chances of success if it is published by a publisher of long and honorable standing; the want of success attending the publication of books, sometimes of real value, by the authors themselves, or others without experience in publishing, being due to no other cause.

I might go on and endeavor to point out the reasons why certain books have succeeded with the public and why others have failed, but to do this would expand this article unduly. It may, perhaps, suffice to say that in order to achieve success in light literature it is, in my opinion, necessary to deal with the themes which have and must always have what might be called perennial human interest. The success of opportunity or of the moment may perhaps be attained without doing so, but the books which have become standard and which will live throughout all time will be found, I think, to deal with those subjects and only those which are of enduring interest to the human race.

These remarks are intended to apply chiefly to novels and to the lighter literature which appeals to the general reading public. Were we to turn to the more serious books and books on special topics, it would be necessary to consider their readers as divided into classes interested in special subjects, and discuss each in turn in connection with the subjects treated and their comparative newness and importance to the whole field of reading. Speaking generally, however, I am inclined to think that European countries attach more importance to and take more interest in the serious classes of literature than we do, and this seems a necessary consequence of the older civilizations, each with a leisure class much more alive to the things that are worth while in literature and in art than our own.

London's Living-In System

By Mary Rankin Cranston

IN the department stores of London and Paris there exists what is called the "living-in" system. It is an institution that theoretically brings comfort and ease to the shop-girl's life. In reality it measures her existence by a foot-rule and makes of her a piece of machinery at the absolute control of her employer. It might be called the "slaving-in" system without exercising the imagination unduly.

The living-in theory is that the wage which comes to the girl is divided in half—one-half she is given in cash, the other half is taken for her food and lodging, which is the living-in provided by the employer. In other words, the average wage of the London shop-girl being £60 ($300) a year, she is given only £30, her employer measuring her lodging and keep at the £30 which he retains.

The plain, unvarnished truth is that shopkeepers take on girls for the smallest cash payment they will work for, supplementing it with food and lodging administered on the most economical basis.

In London, broadly speaking, the shops are divided into three classes. In those of the first class the assistants, as the London clerks are called, come from the small professions, artists, milliners, and teachers, who, for one reason or another, have failed in their chosen lines of work, and farmers' daughters who have come up to London to make their fortunes. These shops have long waiting lists, the assistants frequently serving six months and more without pay for the sake of the living-in, through which they are at no expense to themselves or families. Assistants in these shops are refined young men and women, and are much envied by those in shops of the next two grades.

In the mixed or second-class shops are many refined assistants, as well as

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those from the lower walks of life, who are consequently cast in a coarser mold. These shops, unlike those of the first class, are willing to accept so-called apprentices. Parents sometimes pay as much as £40 ($200) a year to obtain the positions. Theoretically apprentices are to learn the business during their apprenticeship; in reality nothing is taught; the apprentice must pick up in a haphazard way whatever she can learn from those about her.

Assistants of the third class are rougher and of a still lower grade.

Usually the employer will take a block of houses and, after making alterations, turn them into living accommodations for his clerks; men in one establishment, women in another. These groups of houses are subdivided in such a way that a certain number of employees will be in the care of a matron, only sleeping here, however, as all meals are served in the business building, thus separating entirely the restaurant from the sleeping apartments.

After leaving her room in the morning, the assistant cannot enter it again without a written permit from the superintendent of the shop until after working hours. After business is over, she is not allowed to re-enter the business premises for any purpose whatever until the usual time for doing so the next morning.

As London real estate is valuable, space must be economized, so the sitting-room is in the basement. There are comfortable chairs and frequently a piano and periodicals. Some houses go so far as to provide quite nice libraries. On the floors above are the bedrooms. As the houses are apt to be old dwellings with large rooms, several occupants will share the same bedroom—three, four, and five girls in a room, according to its size. There are few single beds, and a customary rule permits the maid to appropriate any garment or article which is left out of its place.

Of course there are no latch-keys. The house door is always left open until eleven o'clock, except one night in the week and on special occasions, holidays and the like, when it is open until twelve o'clock. The penalty for staying over time is a fine of five shillings or dismissal; in some houses no fine, but instant dismissal. A case is known where a girl came in five minutes after twelve o'clock and the housekeeper poked her head out of the window and informed her that she was late and could not get in. The girl had to go to a hotel or walk the streets until she was allowed to enter the restaurant for breakfast.

As conducted in the average shop, the living-in is anything but living, being nothing more than a regular barracks existence. While the assistant has a place to lay her head, she cannot call it her own. It is forbidden to hang pictures in the room or make any attempt at decoration. There was never yet a woman who could be happy deprived of a few familiar things, a picture or two, a few books, or other personal belongings. The home atmosphere is a woman's very life. The workingwoman requires a pleasant place to go after a day of toil, and cheerful interests, in order to save the soul from starvation and the mind from cynicism or worse.

In the London houses girls have a roof over their heads and food, such as it is, to keep life in their bodies. But the very essence of living is absent during the years when life is more to a girl than at any other time.

The daily routine of living-in is something like this: The rising bell gives half an hour for dressing, which is sufficient, as the girls are not required to make their beds. Another bell rings and the girls march from the house to the restaurant, either across the street or just around the corner—to breakfast consisting of bread, butter, and tea, often the strength of the tea being in the butter instead of its rightful place. The girls are not allowed to leave the dining-room until the bell rings for them to go to their counters.

Dinner is from one o'clock until half-past one, but the restaurant must be left at twenty-five minutes past one if the girls are to be at their posts promptly. There is a choice of two or three dishes, but, as it takes from ten to fifteen minutes to be served, girls have no chance to express a preference, but are thankful to take whatever happens to be given to them, swallow it, and run.

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At five o'clock twenty minutes is allowed for tea, bread, and butter, and then back to their counters until half-past six, or seven in the busy season. After the store is closed, the girls are frequently kept as late as half-past nine o'clock arranging stock; when this is the case, however, it is due to poor executive ability on the part of those in charge. Then a supper of bread and cheese, with perhaps milk, after which the shop is left for their rooms.

There are rules enough to run the average human being wild, regulating every act of every moment of the day, and more strict than a boarding-school's. Order, of course, is necessary among a multitude of more or less irresponsible people, but a London establishment which boasts of one hundred and ninety-eight rules might find it simpler to post up the few things the girls are permitted to do, in place of the long list of what is forbidden, with the penalties for disobedience. One of London's largest and best-known shops had one hundred and fifty-seven fines on the list, which has, however, recently been abolished.

On Sunday bedrooms must be vacated by ten o'clock and not entered again until twelve. This aid to church attendance might be praiseworthy, were it not that long working hours during the week leave body and spirit in such condition that a well-earned rest is about the only fit way in which a shop-girl can worship the Lord.

Meals are sometimes served by a caterer and sometimes are in charge of the firm's committee. Almost invariably the food is poor. This is not always the fault of the employer, as an instance which occurred not long ago will prove. In this case the fare went from bad to worse until the limit of endurance was reached. The employees went in a body to the junior member of the firm—an approachable sort of man—and asked him to take breakfast with them then and there. He did so, and discovered to his amazement and indignation that the caterer was living up to his opportunities by pocketing a nice little sum every month from the money appropriated for the purchase and preparation of the food.

The average cost of meals to employers in the greater number of shops is 9d. per head per day; in some cases it is reduced to 4d. Tiresome repetition dulls the appetite; in fact, the bill of fare is "the same yesterday, to-day, and forever." In one shop this dinner menu has been served for years: Sunday, pork; Monday, beef hot; Tuesday, beef cold; Wednesday, mutton hot; Thursday, mutton cold; Friday, beef hot; Saturday, beef cold and resurrection pie. On Thursday there is either a roly-poly pudding or stewed fruit thickened with sago.

It is pleasant to turn from the average London shop to the few establishments where the living-in system has a chance to show what it may be under proper guidance. These are exceptions, and constitute oases in the desert which London is for the great majority of shop assistants.

There is in that city, not a thousand miles from Piccadilly Circus, a well-known firm which has been in existence for a number of years, an old house even for London. Here, many years ago, a young man served his apprenticeship, and suffered from the ordinary abuses of living-in. He made up his mind that, if ever he became manager in a shop, he would correct some of the worst features of the system. Years after he found himself again with this same firm, but this time as its manager. He began gradually to remedy many of the evils, and to-day his employees are strong advocates of the system.

As the business expanded, the quarters were found to be too small for the accommodation of the increased number of employees. Then the original rooms on the top floor of the house were given to assistants who had been with the firm the longest number of years. Many of them were really old men and women, for whom it would have been a hardship to go, in bad weather, to a separate building. Other houses were taken for the remaining employees. To-day plans are being made for still better rooms in a new building. In order to make improvements, the employees had to vacate their own rooms, which caused, as the manager said, "quite a disturbance."

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A deputation called upon him, and he found that he had a good-sized trouble on his hands. He was informed that they did not want to move; they were satisfied where they were, and did not like the place to which they were required to go; furthermore, they would not do it.

"And what did you do?" he was asked.

"I invited them out to supper, talked it over fairly and squarely with them, and the next day they all moved out peacefully and willingly."

Among the reforms this man has instituted are two which have added greatly to the self-respect of the men on his force. During his apprentice days the clerks were required to wipe up the floors—"squadding," it is called—and do the dusting. Now porters are hired, and fines have been abolished.

In this same shop, a few months ago, after an addition had been made to the store, it was found necessary to get the assistants up at four o'clock in the morning to put the stock in shape. The manager did not like to detail any one to do this, "for," said he, "it was an unearthly hour for people to get up, and was a nasty bit of work at the best. I called for volunteers, saying that no one was desired who had the slightest disinclination for it. The next morning at four o'clock every assistant reported for work, and I had to hustle to get enough to keep them busy."

So there are shops and shops of varying degrees of goodness and badness; but, when the best is said, the living-in system can make out but a poor case for itself. One serious evil is the undermining of the employee's individuality and independence. She becomes a mere automaton, incapable of taking the initiative in any steps looking to her advancement. Weakened physically by a lack of nutritious food, and mentally through being under the domination of another's will, what can she expect to be, after a few years' service, but a broken-down wreck?

The worst of the living-in system is that it practically dooms a man to celibacy and drives women into undesirable marriages. In some shops men are even required to obtain their employer's consent before they can marry. This is withheld as long as possible, for married men live out and are entitled to the full cash value of their services, which the employer is loth to give just as long as he can persuade the clerk to live in.

Bad as conditions are in London to-day, they were formerly much worse, the improvements being due to the work of the Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks. Organized a few years ago, this Union has accomplished important reforms, especially along the lines of sanitation, ventilation, and shortening the hours of labor.

To the Watch

By Arnold Townsend

O Sentinel at the loose-swung door of my impetuous lips,
Guard close to-day! Make sure no word unjust or cruel slips
In anger forth, by folly spurred or armed with envy's whips;
Keep clear the way to-day.

And Watchmen on the cliff-scarred heights that lead from heart to mind,
When wolf-thoughts clothed in guile's soft fleece creep up, O be not blind!
But may they pass whose foreheads bear the glowing seal-word "kind;"
Bid them God-speed, I pray.

And Warden of my soul's stained house where love and hate are born,
O make it clean, if swept must be with pain's rough broom of thorn!
And quiet impose, so straining ears with world-din racked and torn
May catch what God doth say.

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The Next Step Toward International Honesty

THE United States and all the other great States of the world have now adopted the Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, "with a view to obviating, so far as possible, recourse to force between States." In 1902 the United States also adopted the Hague Convention with respect to the Laws and Customs of War on Land, to which the nations agreed, considering that "it is likewise necessary to have regard to cases where an appeal to arms may be caused by events which their solicitude could not avert."

International agreements cover, therefore, cases which are referred to arbitration and those which involve warfare upon land. No provision is made by international agreement for the conduct of hostilities upon the sea, except in the single matter of the extension of the principles of the Geneva Convention of 1864 to the treatment of the wounded and shipwrecked. The sea will inevitably become more and more the field of hostilities. Upon the sea, in time of war, the interests of commerce and communication, more than ever before of great importance, are now to a considerable degree left to arbitrary treatment. This is easily seen in the marked changes in insurance rates which follow the rumors of war on the sea. There is no agreement in regard to the treatment of persons or property upon the sea in time of war.

The method of the conduct of hostilities between the war vessels themselves is also not determined by fixed rules upon which there is international agreement. A State possessing ships of war costing in some instances $7,000,000 or more has much at stake in time of war on the sea. Such ships should not be subjected to the risk of destruction by means which, while regarded as dishonorable by the advanced States, may yet be used by an unscrupulous enemy. The possibility of taking advantage of some means to which those States which occupy a commanding position in the family of nations would not resort, often stimulates the States more accustomed to extreme measures to declare war. It is the State most anxious to deal fairly that runs the greatest risk in allowing to continue longer the present uncertainty in regard to the conduct of hostilities upon the sea.

It can hardly be expected that agreement can be reached by many States upon all points with respect to the conduct of warfare upon the sea. New conditions will arise which will require new agreements. Something approximating the Convention with respect to the Laws and Customs of War on Land can be devised. The status of commerce and communication should no longer be uncertain. Submarine telegraphic cables may be mentioned as a single form of the means of communication which should not be subjected to arbitrary treatment in the time of war. Those who believe in justice and fair play as well as those whose financial interests are imperiled may well demand that a measure of that definiteness which prevails with regard to warfare upon land be established for warfare upon the sea. Further, those who love peace can easily realize that long peace is best secured by just war when war is unavoidable.

The Hague Conference of 1898 realized that rules were needed for war on the sea, and recommended that another conference be called to consider some of these matters. President Roosevelt renewed the recommendation of President McKinley, and in his last message requested Congress to authorize the Executive "to correspond with the governments of the principal maritime powers with a view of incorporating into the permanent law of civilized nations the principle of the exemption of all private property at sea, not contraband of war, from capture or destruction by belligerent powers."

In view of the recommendations of the

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Hague Conference and of the President and his predecessor, and in view of the increasing importance of the interests involved in warfare upon the sea it seems a most fitting time for the calling of an international conference to consider the rules for war upon the sea. It also seems fitting that the United States, which has always stood for honesty in the treatment of property upon the sea, in time of war, as for advanced positions in other matters of maritime war, should take the initiative in calling this conference. Such a conference should not be restricted to the consideration of one particular phase of the conduct of maritime warfare, but should consider all points upon which any agreement can be reached. There are many more possibilities of agreement than are suspected in advance of frank discussion, as shown by the results of the Hague Conference of 1898. At that time agreements were reached in regard to international arbitration and in regard to the conduct of war on land. The field of action left unsettled at that time should now be considered, and the next step toward international honesty should be taken by an international agreement in regard to the conduct of hostilities on the sea.

* *

The Victorian Age[1]

IT is well that the definitive and standard life of Queen Victoria should bear the date 1903 instead of 1901—the year of the Queen's death. The appreciation by Miss Marie Corelli and the biography by the Duke of Argyll, the Queen's son-in-law, might properly bear the earlier date, because of their intimate touch and their emphasis on family life—an impression to be given with special fervor in the shadow of the passing of the great Queen, who was pre-eminently exemplary as wife and mother and gentlewoman. But, in determining Victoria's position in history as monarch, a sense of proportion and a regard for exact detail compel a certain lapse of time from the year of her demise. The Queen's personal history in the varied spheres of life is for the first time narrated with a due sense of perspective by Mr. Sidney Lee, the editor of the Dictionary of National Biography. He of all men seems to have had a fitting sense of what a serious, well-proportioned, dignified biography should be, and such he certainly has made the present volume. In it we like best the author's emphasis on the Queen's direct intervention in home politics throughout her long reign—the longest in English history and the longest but one in European history; for instance, her criticism of the bill incorporating India with the dominions of the Crown; her attitude towards Palmerston as regards the latter's precipitate recognition of Napoleon III.; above all, as regards Palmerston's attitude in the Trent affair. Both Mr. Lee and Mr. Smith bear testimony to the feeling then in England that the South would gain its independence. The Queen's influence upon members of her family, at home and abroad, particularly on William II. of Germany, is also deservedly emphasized. No sovereign of England, says Mr. Lee, was a more voluminous correspondent with the officers of state. "She laboriously studied every detail of Government business, and on every question of policy or administration she formed for herself decided opinions, to which she obstinately adhered, pressing them pertinaciously on the notice of her Ministers." Mr. Smith, in his autobiography, is well within the mark in saying, "No sovereign in English history ever attained such universal esteem as Queen Victoria."

In 1900 the anxieties and sorrows due to the South African War and to the deaths of relatives proved a severe strain on the Queen's nervous system. In January, 1901, she nerved herself to welcome Lord Roberts on his return

[1] *Queen Victoria: A Biography.* By Sidney Lee. The Macmillan Co., New York.
Cecil Rhodes: A Study of a Career. By Edward Hensman. Harper & Brothers, New York.
My Life Work. By Samuel Smith, M.P. Hodder & Stoughton, London.
Édouard VII. Par J. H. Aubry. Félix Juven, Paris.

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from South Africa, and to give an audience to Mr. Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, so that she might understand the immediate prospect of South African affairs. It was fitting that the future of the British Colonial Empire should be her last business in life.

In the extension of the Empire it has been generally supposed that the Queen was for peace, first, last, and all the time. But Mr. Lee shows that when war was once recognized as necessary, it found an advocate in the Queen. The Sudan campaign of 1898, for instance, culminating in the battle of Khartum, was, says he, "a source of immense gratification to her." But all other experiences sank into insignificance beside the Boer War. In 1891 the Queen had invited Cecil Rhodes to dine at Windsor. As Mr. Hensman in his sumptuous volume tells us, Rhodes afterwards expressed gratified surprise at the Queen's knowledge of South African politics and at her clear and statesmanlike comments. The interview left the Queen one of Rhodes's admirers. Later her confidence in Lord Salisbury's wisdom spared her any misgivings while negotiations with the Transvaal Government were pending. So long as any chance remained of maintaining an honorable peace, says Mr. Lee, the Queen hoped that there would be no war; but when that peace could not be maintained, "she focused her energies on entreaties to her Ministers to pursue the war with all possible promptitude and effect." This combination of humanity with militant dignity probably made Cecil Rhodes confess that Queen Victoria was intellectually the equal of any statesman with whom he had ever come in contact. Yet Rhodes had not, as Mr. Hensman is careful to say, a very high opinion of women's abilities and their fitness for political life. If the development of a Colonial Empire was the great distinguishing feature of Queen Victoria's reign, Cecil Rhodes played a prime part in that development. For many years, for good or for ill, he dominated South African politics. Mr. Hensman's description of Rhodes's connection with the Jameson Raid may seem to us inadequate; that of Rhodes's connection with the Boer War is certainly inadequate; better is the elucidation of the Cape to Cairo railway and other empire-making schemes.

If the development of a Colonial Empire most impressed those outside England, there are certain problems at home the solution of which makes the Victorian era memorable to every Englishman. The account of these is more graphic in Mr. Smith's book than in Mr. Lee's, as is natural from an old parliamentarian—education, the franchise, Irish Home Rule, church questions. Mr. Smith's life has been one of admirable effort in the solving of these problems. He has now turned his attention abroad to Indian matters, which exceed in complexity any other, and also to Anglo-American relations. Mr. Smith's repeated visits to this country have made him widely and favorably known here.

He thus defines the Empire's attitude in 1902: "The press is filled with reports of earnest prayers for our beloved Sovereign, which happily were heard. The blessed peace in South Africa has left behind it a chastened and thankful spirit. The accent of boastfulness has marvelously disappeared. I cannot but hope that a more fruitful era in our national life has arrived." The prime mover in that peace, we believe, was Edward VII. More than any other Englishman, his personal ascendency gives the impress of contemporary manners and character, simple, unboastful, uninsular. To him is due the rapid regaining of English prestige among the courts of Europe. Yet he has never had "a military soul," as Mr. Aubry points out; his life in the Victorian age during his half-century as Prince of Wales was purely that of the Queen's first servant. He well fulfilled his motto, "Ich dien." He once aptly called himself a drummer for loyalism, and with true commercial-traveler energy he went everywhere. He was hail-fellow-well-met in all ranks of society at home and abroad, until, as the keen French critic says, he was reproached with having about him "too many Americans and too many Jews." He has, however, made the Court felt as not

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in a century before. In politics he is supposed to be a Liberal-Unionist-Imperialist of the Rosebery and Devonshire sort. According to M. Aubry, the King had a profound admiration for Cecil Rhodes, that ultra-Imperialist. Whether this is so or not, Edward VII.'s work is to be, according to the keen French critic, the federation and armament of the Empire, the mending or ending of the House of Lords, the separation of Church and State, agricultural and inheritance reforms, the pacification of Ireland, the creation throughout the United Kingdom of peasant proprietors of the soil, universal suffrage, the political emancipation of woman; finally, workingmen's pensions.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Adventurer in Spain (The). By S. R. Crockett. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 338 pages. 5×9½ in. $1.50.

It is hard to distinguish fact from fiction here, but the unusual mixture of personal travel and adventure with romance is certainly interesting. Mr. Crockett climbed the mountains that separate France from Spain, visited remote mountain villages, made friends with smugglers, Carlists, and roadside characters. His experiences were singular in themselves and well worthy of narration, while from time to time he introduces a little tale of Spanish love-making, fighting, or smuggling, which adds a fanciful touch to the whole. The book is in part illustrated from the author's photographs.

Adventures of Elizabeth in Rügen (The). By the Author of "Elizabeth and Her German Garden." The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 299 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Anatomical Model of the Female Human Body: An Illustrated Representation, with Full and Descriptive Letterpress. Edited by William S. Furneaux. Thomas Whittaker, New York. $1.75, net.

Angler's Secret (The). By Charles Bradford. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 206 pages.

Pleasantly written little talks by a fisherman for fishermen. The tyro and the expert will find practical suggestions, while the whole is pervaded by the spirit of Izaak Walton and combines gentle sentiment with the good fellowship of sport.

Aristocracy of Health (The). By Mary Foote Henderson. The Colton Publishing Co., Washington, D.C. 5×7¾ in. 772 pages.

Biographic Clinics: Vol. II. The Origin of the Ill Health of George Eliot, George Henry Lewes, Wagner, Parkman, Jane Welch Carlyle, Spencer, Whittier, Margaret Fuller Ossoli, and Nietzsche. By George M. Gould, M.D. P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 392 pages. $1.

Clinics are medical lessons given to pupils at the bedside of the patient, or in his presence. Biographical memoranda of the persons named on the title-page of this volume are cited as the basis of the thesis it propounds. The main cause of their ill health is diagnosed as eyestrain. "No cause can more directly and infallibly upset and morbidize the nervous, mental, and nutritional mechanisms." Furthermore, "one of the most successful, one of the most potent preparers of the morbid soil for any infectious disease is eyestrain, and it will in time be recognized as such." As to Mrs. Carlyle, De Quincey, Parkman, Schopenhauer, Wagner, Nietzsche, "a simple, or rather, speaking in optical terms, a compound pair of lenses would have absolutely prevented the entire tragedy in each case." Not only insanity, but, as Dr. Gould concludes from statistics of the Elmira Reformatory, even crime, is to a considerable extent traceable to an ocular origin. The pessimism which colors so much of modern literature partly grows, in his view, from this prolific root of evil. This thesis, advanced in Dr. Gould's preceding volume of studies upon the ill health of De Quincey, Carlyle, Darwin, Huxley, and Browning, failed to find favor with the medical profession. He therefore returns to the charge with some intensity, and does not mince matters in speaking of the "enormous mistake," the "professional crime." In the issue thus joined a layman must suspend judgment, but may at the same time remember that conservatism has impeded the advance of medical no less than of theological science. Next to, perhaps even more than, the stomach the eye is, no doubt, the most neglected and abused organ of the body.

Chats on Writers and Books. By John N. Crawford. In 2 vols. Charles H. Sergel Co., Chicago. 6½×9¾ in. $5.

Mr. Crawford was a Chicago newspaper writer and essayist. He is described by the writer of the Introduction to these handsomely printed volumes as a man of a judicial mind, an indefatigable reader, and a thorough scholar. The sketches and talks here included very well bear out this description of the writer. They contain nothing very profoundly original or searching in criticism.

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but they give a good idea of the personality, life, and literary work of scores of famous writers, actors, and social celebrities. Johnson, Garrick, Pope, Horace Walpole, Mrs. Barbauld, Mr. and Mrs. George Grote, Lady Holland, Barham, William Morris, and Austin Dobson are some of the names that meet the eye in turning over the pages.

Christian Apologetics: A Series of Addresses delivered before the Christian Association of University College, London. By George Henslow, M.A., Henry Wace, D.D., and Others. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 133 pages. $1.25, net.

Under this title are comprised addresses on "The Nature and Scope of Christian Evidences," "Present-Day Rationalism, with an Examination of Darwinism," "The Book of Genesis," "The Synoptic Gospels as Independent Witnesses," "The Witness of Human Experience," "Materialism or Christianity," "Some Evidences for the Resurrection." Brief speeches by men of distinction follow most of these, among them Lord Kelvin's, which drew forth many letters to the press upon his affirmation that "science positively affirms Creative Power." While these addresses are not in every point adequate or satisfactory, they contain much that is valuable, and some really noble passages.

Congregational Way (The): A Handbook of Congregational Principles and Practices. By George M. Boynton. The Pilgrim Press, New York. 5×7½ in. 221 pages. $1, net.

The fundamental principles and the varying practices and tendencies of the Congregational churches are the subject of this work. With its unchangeable principle of the autonomy of each local church the flexibility of Congregationalism in other respects is such as to require from time to time restatements, such as this, of the current modifications or improvements of its ancient way. It appears from Dr. Boynton's account that there is a tendency to closer organization for common interests, to unification of missionary and benevolent activities, to more variety in modes of worship, and to less philosophical and more practical statements of doctrine, to none of which, however, is individual or church subscription required. In its statement of principles, of past and present practices, and with its copious appendix of current forms of belief and of procedure for all purposes, this is a valuable reference-book for all whom it may concern either for information or for action.

Consolatio: Ode in Memory of those Members of the Class of Nineteen Hundred and Three of Stanford University who Died During the Month of Their Graduation. By Raymond Macdonald Alden. Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco. 5×8½ in. 8 pages. 50c., net.

Das Märchen. By Johann Wolfgang Goethe. Edited by Charles A. Eggert, Ph.D. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 4¼×6½ in. 109 pages.

English Statutes in Maryland (The). By St. George Leakin Sioussat, Ph.D. (Johns Hopkins University Studies. Series XXI.) The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, Md. 6×9¾ in. 111 pages. 50c.

Eppy Grams. By Dinkelspiel. Per George V. Hobart. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 91 pages.

Francis of Assisi. By Anna M. Stoddart. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 4×7 in. 247 pages. $1, net.

This is an exquisite example of book-making. The text deserves it. While the little book makes no pretensions to be a work for students, it is emphatically a book not only for every young student of the history of religion, but for every serious reader. It has been written in Assisi with the advantage of the latest elucidations concerning the life and times of the great Franciscan. It should be read before one takes up M. Paul Sabatier's standard "Vie de S. François d'Assise," but it can be read with distinct satisfaction after the perusal of that great book. The numerous lives of Francis of Assisi which have been published during the past decade attest to the compelling charm and to the profound influence of one who brought an Italian joyousness and spontaneity into every religious act no matter how austere otherwise. The latest contribution is not a whit behind the others in reverence for the subject and in an earnest desire to acquaint others with the exceeding beauty of the life and aims of a man who stood very near to Christ in that life and those aims.

From Agnosticism to Theism. By Charles F. Dole. The James H. West Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 29 pages. 25c.

There is a notable charm in this little argument reprinted from the "Hibbert Journal," a sympathetic persuasiveness of reason quickened by profound moral feeling, which gives it a practical value above that of some massive volumes for minds perplexed about "the unknowable."

Grace Before Meat: A Collection of Table Blessings for All Occasions. By Amos R. Wells. United Society of Christian Endeavor, 600 Tremont Temple, Boston. 4½×5¾ in. 79 pages. 25c.

Handbook of Parliamentary Usage. By Frank William Howe. Hinds & Noble, New York. 3½×7 in. 55 pages. 50c.

Handbook on the Prevention of Tuberculosis (A). Published by the Charity Organization Society, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York. 6×9½ in. 388 pages. Paper bound.

Help for the Tempted: And That Means All of Us. By Amos R. Wells. United Society of Christian Endeavor, Boston. 4½×7½ in. 182 pages. 75c.

Henderson. By Rose E. Young. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 189 pages. $1.25.

The author of this story is a Missourian by birth and a Kentuckian and Virginian by descent. She is a young woman of considerable experience; she taught school in Texas, has done editorial work in Chicago and in New York, and has seen a great deal of the country on both sides of the Mississippi. This story is a somewhat over-intense study of an episode in the life of three people. The situation is an unusual one, and is worked out with a great deal of skill, the

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three figures in the little drama of love and death being very distinctly sketched. The story suffers from strain, but the situation creates and in part justifies this stress.

History of the Christian Church. By George H. Dryer, D.D. In 5 vols. Jennings & Pye, Cincinnati. 5½×8¼ in.

A history of the Christian Church in five volumes one has a right to expect to find both accurate and well proportioned. Though this history is written with admirable spirit, it lacks both accuracy and right proportion. Such easily ascertainable facts, for instance, as the names of some modern theological writers are wrongly given. Of the five volumes two treat of events from the middle of the seventeenth century onward. The work, too, lacks distinction in style and interpretative insight, either of which might have outweighed other faults. Each volume is supplied with a bibliography, an index which would be more valuable if more complete. This is a history designed for popular use. Its most decided merit is its attempt, very generally successful, to report results of religious controversy with impartiality, to indicate the religious value existing in changes that to some have seemed inimical to religion, and to emphasize the unity of the Church, which depends less on ecclesiastical organization than on human experience.

Hypatia. By Charles Kingsley. (The New Century Library.) T. Nelson & Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 467 pages. $1.50.

An attractive edition of the small-volume, thin-paper, limp-cover type.

Iberian (The): Anglo-Greek Play. By Osborn R. Lamb. With Music by H. Claiborne Dixon. Ames & Rollinson, 203 Broadway, New York. 5½×7 in. 119 pages. $2, net.

We should not find fault with a home be cause neither husband nor wife has any particular distinction. Similarly, we are not inclined to speak ill of a book in which verse and music are well mated.

I Need the Money. By Hugh McHugh. Illustrated. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 4×7 in. 114 pages.

In Relief of Doubt. By R. E. Welsh, M.A. H. R. Allenson, Paternoster Row, London, E. C., England. 5½×8½ in. 110 pages.

This is designed as an antidote to cheap publications, agnostic or atheistic, widely circulated in England. Frankly accepting the *dicta* of modern science, it is a popular argument for the fundamental tenets of Christianity, conceding somewhat less to the claims of Biblical critics in the New Testament field than in that of the Old Testament. It is lucid, vigorous, and commendable to all who are trying to tune the "jarring lyre."

Jeremy Taylor. By Edmund Gosse. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 234 pages. 75c., net.

Reserved for later notice.

Jewel of Seven Stars (The). By Bram Stoker. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 310 pages. $1.50.

A preposterous story of mystery, mysticism, and crime.

Leaves from the Diaries of a Soldier and Sportsman During Twenty Years' Service in India, Afghanistan, Egypt, and Other Countries, 1865-1885. By Lieutenant-General Sir Montagu Gilbert Gerard, K.C.B., K.C.S.I. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 6×9 in. 399 pages. $4, net.

General Gerard's experiences as a sportsman and soldier from 1864 to 1884 cover places as far apart as Gibraltar, Central India, Abyssinia, Afghanistan, and Egypt. Although his book sometimes has unnecessary personal detail, it is for the most part decidedly readable, and that as well to the student of races and of political history as to the lover of narratives of hunting adventure. The book is handsomely printed and illustrated.

Liberal Christianity: Its Origin, Nature, and Mission. By Jean Réville. Translated and Edited by Victor Leuliette. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 205 pages. $1.25.

These addresses by a French professor, first given in Switzerland last fall, describe what in this country would be called radical Unitarianism. Their fundamental defect, it seems to us, is their confusing use of the same term, at one time to denote a religious attitude of mind, at other times to denote the reasoned conclusions of certain people who have that attitude of mind. The conception of Christianity which they set forth is based on the supposed truism that Christianity consists of the aggregate of Jesus' teachings, and therefore is to be dug out of the synoptic gospels; whereas it is equally rational to hold that Christianity consists in the spirit and life of Christ to be found, perhaps, more clearly embodied in Paul's Epistles and the Fourth Gospel than in the annalistic writings of Matthew, Luke, and Mark. Liberalism, as here expounded, might well be called Synoptic Christianity—a modern and subtle form of literalism.

"Little Ten-Minutes;" or, A Pastor's Talks with His Children. By Frank T. Bayley, D.D. The Carson-Harper Co., Denver, Colo. 5¼×8 in. 189 pages. $1, net.

Each of these addresses has for its center an anecdote or story, or a simple illustrative experiment. They are well within the comprehension of children, in some cases even those who are very young. The moral and religious lessons are wholesome—not too sentimental, not too austere. The book might prove suggestive to some teachers regarding modes of approach to the minds of children.

Man Roosevelt (The). By Francis E. Leupp. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 341 pages. $1.25, net. (Postage, 10c.)

Reserved for later notice.

Manual of Forensic Quotations. By Leon Mead and F. Newell Gilbert. Illustrated. J. F. Taylor & Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 207 pages. $1.50.

Mediæval England. By Mary Bateson. Illustrated. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5¼×8 in. 448 pages. $1.35, net.

A very interesting survey of England during the mediæval period, dealing largely with

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family, social, ecclesiastical, and feudal life. The materials for such a book as this are in certain fields extremely voluminous and in others very meager, but Miss Bateson has pieced together very skillfully the fragments relating to the home life of the nobility and to life in the monasteries, and has given a connected and readable account of these phases of old English life, intimate enough and detailed enough to bring before the imagination, if not before the eye, the background and habit, the dress and manners, the ideals and occupations of a very remote period. The book has value for the student of literature because considerable space is given to the attitude of the English kings and the nobility toward learning and poetry at a time when these things existed largely by the good will of patrons or by the protection of the Church. The ecclesiastical side of the story is told with sufficient fullness. The relations between the secular and the regular clergy are very fully indicated, and a good deal of prominence is given to the long and at times bitter contention between these two bodies.

Memorials of Mary Wilder White. By Elizabeth Amelia Dwight. Edited by Mary Wilder Tileston. The Everett Press Co., Boston. 6×9¼ in. 409 pages. $2.50, net.

Metric Fallacy (The), by Frederick A. Halsey, and **The Metric Failure in the Textile Industry**, by Samuel S. Dale. D. Van Nostrand Co., 23 Murray St., New York. 5½×9 in. 231 pages. $1.

Many people of a scientific turn of mind have viewed with favor the proposition before Congress to establish the metric system of weights and measures in this country, as merely a consistent extension of our decimal system of reckoning money. These persons have probably regarded the late Mr. Spencer's provision in his will for the publication of his articles opposing the metric system as a mere idiosyncrasy. Such readers of this volume will probably revise their opinion, in surprise at the cumulative and massive weight of argument adduced from practical considerations against theoretical—from the interests of the industrial world against those of the scientific. Why there should be this contrariety of opinion is well explained: "The scientific use of measurements consists in measuring existing things; the industrial use consists in making things to a required size." While the scientist has to measure all possible sizes, the manufacturer has need of comparatively few standard sizes. The American manufacturer opposes the introduction of the metric system as entailing both cost and confusion to an intolerable degree. It appears from the data in this volume that the old units persist in all countries where the metric system has been legalized; that European manufacturers favor it only as a relief from the chaos of local standards; that American industries have a distinct advantage over the rest of the world in their use of standard sizes, with which it would be folly to interfere. In short, one who has no doctrinaire interest will be inclined to think "the metric fallacy" well named, and to judge that its advocates should go slow.

Miracle (The). Translated from the German of F. Bettex, by H. M. German Literary Board, Burlington, Iowa. 5½×8 in. 78 pages. 50c.

Modern English Prose: Selected and Edited by George Rice Carpenter and William Tenney Brewster. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 481 pages. $1.10.

Judiciously selected extracts of some length intended for use as illustrative material in class work. With one or two exceptions these excerpts form complete essays, stories, or sketches. The authors range from Macaulay to Jack London and from Gibbons to Hamlin Garland.

Narrow Gate (The). By Charles M. Sheldon. The Advance Publishing Co., Chicago. 6×8 in. 230 pages. $1, net.

New Light on the Life of Jesus. By Charles Augustus Briggs, D.D., D.Litt. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 196 pages. $1.20, net.

The chronology of the life of Christ is one of the most difficult problems in Biblical study. Its solution can be at best only approximate. There was a time when the Gospel of Mark was accepted as the only practicable norm. Dr. Briggs's book represents a decided reaction from that position. It is interesting to note not only the weight which the Gospel of John has in the evidence which Dr. Briggs cites, but also the corroborative evidence which is found in Tatian's Diatessaron. Some of the interpretations we find at variance with what we think to be the facts, not to say the very character of Christ, notably the suggestion that Jesus drove the traders out of the temple because he was indignant at being defrauded in the purchase of a paschal lamb! The details of the book demand scrutiny; they cannot be dismissed in a brief review such as this. The outline is clear, and the conclusions worthy of attention.

New Testament in the Christian Church (The): Eight Lectures. By Edward Caldwell Moore. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 367 pages. $1.50, net.

This is a valuable addition to current theological literature. It belongs to that small but happily growing class of books which combine scholarship with clear writing. It is a work which both the specialist and the layman will read. Modern Bible study has largely been concerned with the origin and character of the various Scriptural writings; to but a few has been confined the study of the process by which these various writings have become included in the Bible. Not many Protestants would have a reasonable answer to give if asked why they should not value the Shepherd of Hermas or the Teaching of the Twelve Apostles as highly as they do the Book of Acts. Those who believe that the Spirit of God directs the thoughts and actions of men must believe that the Spirit was quite as dominating an influence over the men who chose the books to be included in the New Testament as over

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those who wrote those books. In other words, inspiration cannot be ascribed to writers of the Bible without also ascribing it to the makers of the canon. Dr. Moore, who is Parkman Professor of Theology at Harvard, so describes the formation of the canon that the reader must have a new sense of the way in which the spirit of Christ has guided the Church in spite of other and conflicting spirits. He also indicates the interaction between the growth of the canon and the growth of church government, ritual, and doctrine. Many ministers and laymen will find this volume suggestive of an unfamiliar way by which to approach the study of the New Testament and at the same time of a not frequented path from which to survey Church history. Our only caution is that the book must not be taken as Church history. Of Montanism, for instance, the reader would get from this book alone hardly an adequate or just opinion. This is only saying that Dr. Moore does only what he undertakes to do.

Northfield Hymnal. By George C. Stebbins. The Biglow & Main Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 224 pages. 30c.

An addition to a class of religious songbooks already too large. It is unfortunate that the name of Northfield should be associated in this way with triviality in music and pietism in words.

Philippine Islands, 1493-1898 (The). Translated from the Originals. Vol. X. (1597-1599.) Edited by Emma Helen Blair and James Alexander Robertson. Illustrated. The Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland. 6×9½ in. 319 pages. $4, net.

Phonographic Dictation Book. Business Correspondence. First Phonographic Reader. By James E. Munson. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 50c. each.

Sermon and Preacher: Essays on Preaching. By Rev. W. J. Foxell, M.A. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 164 pages. $1.25, net.

These essays by a London clergyman, especially intended for ministers of the Church of England, are not only free from all sectarian limitations, but are characterized by breadth of view, good judgment, and a treatment of their subject that is compact, comprehensive, and profitable to all who are either exercising the Gospel ministry or in preparation for it.

Some Indian Friends and Acquaintances. By Lieutenant-Colonel D. D. Cunningham, C.I.E., F.R.S. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 423 pages. $3.50, net.

The friends here celebrated are the birds and animals frequenting Indian streets and gardens—kites, crows, storks, bats, monkeys, snakes, and many lesser tribes. The author has closely studied their habits and peculiarities, and his book belongs to the domain of easily read popular science. There are many pictures.

Story of Our Lord's Life (The). By Maud Montgomery. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×6½ in. 163 pages.

"A graduated course of theological study" for children and young people is intended in the series to which this volume belongs. It will be "in harmony with the principles of the teaching of the English Church, and not inconsistent with the assured results of the best Biblical and historical criticism." Miss Montgomery writes in an agreeable style for young readers.

Stories of Birds and Beasts. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Illustrated. (The Heart of Nature Series.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 130 pages.

Stories of Earth and Sky. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Illustrated. (The Heart of Nature Series.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 125 pages.

Stories of Plants and Animals. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Illustrated. (The Heart of Nature Series.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 143 pages.

Story of the Lopez Family (The): A Page from the History of the War in the Philippines. Edited by Canning Eyot. Illustrated. The James H. West Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 217 pages. $1.

Story of Washington (The). By Virginia Heath. The L. H. Nelson Co., Portland, Maine. 8×10 in. 32 pages.

Violett: A Chronicle. By Baroness von Hutten. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 285 pages. $1.50.

A painful and rather overwrought story of a boy with an artistic temperament who has as a shadow over his life the fact that his father was hanged. The situations are tense and undoubtedly affect the reader's sensibilities, and there is some true study of character, but one misses the charm and humor of "Our Lady of the Beeches," and this story is not likely to be regarded as an advance on its predecessors.

When It Was Dark: The Story of a Great Conspiracy. By Guy Thorne. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 391 pages.

When Love is Love. By Kate Langley Bosher. The Neale Publishing Co., New York. 5×8 in. 318 pages.

Where Did Life Begin? A Monograph. By Gilbert Hilton Scribner. (New Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 75 pages. $1.20, net.

The answer given is that it began at the poles. In the nature of things, as is here shown, the polar regions must have been cooled down earlier than any other parts of the globe to the temperature at which life, as organized on this planet, can begin its career. From the poles life must have spread in all directions, as the cooling of the earth continued, toward the rest of the globe, until at length the advent of the present polar climate drove it from its original abode. The present volume is a reprint of the original edition issued in 1883, and has gained some favor with men of science, among whom was the late Asa Gray.

Yellow Holly (The). By Fergus Hume. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 359 pages. $1.25.

Nothing could possibly be more yellow than the cover of this book—except its contents. It must be added that the author shows some deftness in handling the threads of his murder-mystery plot. His English might often be improved.

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Correspondence

Italian Immigration

[The following letter comes from the Rev. W. E. Davenport, who is devoting his life to the education, industrial, social, and economic, of the Italians in this country, and is the head of the Italian Settlement in Brooklyn, New York. He is now visiting Italy in connection with his work, and his reports can be entirely relied upon by our readers.—THE EDITORS.]

Your kind note of the 28th ult. was duly received, and I am giving the matter in hand my best attention. I have talked with one Senator here, with the Commissioner-General of Immigration, and also with Special Commissioner Egito Rorsi, whom you know. All are very emphatic that conditions in southern Italy are improving, both educationally and industrially, for the farmer. A great effort is to be made at this session of the Chamber of Deputies, which convenes one week from to-day, to secure a large appropriation for the increased pay of the teachers in the primary schools of Italy and Calabria, and for the opening of a large number of new evening schools in both these sections. The matter is being agitated strongly, and with effect, in the leading newspapers here, the "Tribuna" of Rome, which has great influence here, and others. The charge that the La Veloce line or the Navigazione Generale (the only two steamship lines active in the transportation of Italian emigrants here) are unscrupulous in their methods and in their representations to peasants seeking to emigrate seems to me little supported by facts and figures that have recently come to my notice. The largest emigration to-day from any single province of Italy is a strictly temporary emigration from Venezia, in the extreme northeast. These people press across the border into Switzerland, France, and Austria at the rate of 130,000 a year. The reason why they do this is because work is more plentiful and better paid in these neighboring sections than in their own. But this emigration is certainly not stimulated by steamship companies, for the reason that it involves only overland traveling.

The three ports from which emigrants are allowed to leave Italy for transatlantic and therefore permanent emigration (for the Italian Government assumes that all transatlantic immigration is essentially permanent in its character) are Genoa, Naples, and Palermo, at each of which points the Government has special officers stationed to see that the utmost fairness is exercised by the companies towards the emigrants themselves. The officials of the Government are intended to be a check upon any tendency of the companies to mislead or mistreat those whom they are to transport. That these officers are men of special training and character, and often of high scientific attainment, I personally know.

The charge that the ship companies recruit great bodies of the ignorant and unfit by misrepresenting conditions in the United States is also in part invalidated by the fact that the proportion of emigrants from the port cities where the ship agents might most easily work is extraordinarily small, Genoa, Naples, and Palermo each sending a much lower percentage of emigrants than the rest of the country, the remote villages especially. As to the interest taken by the Government itself, it is true that in some instances the Government has supplied to the Sindacos of certain towns extracts from the reports of its consuls in other lands, in which the industrial opportunities have appeared most favorable; and it may be that the Sindacos, or village mayors, have disseminated this information where they have thought it would be welcome.

Our own laws restricting the character of foreign emigration are already stringent. More than once I have known cases where men of good character have been deported from the port of New York on the ground that they came as contract laborers, when the evidence of anything in the nature of a contract having been made was of the flimsiest character.

The knowledge of what the conditions are in America is growing and spreading rapidly all over Italy. The Italians in New York, in Philadelphia, in Boston, and in Chicago mail to their friends in Calabria, Palermo, and Sicily every week the Italian newspapers printed in all our great cities, in which are always to be found advertisements of laborers wanted at rates from three to five times those received by such men in Italy. It is not a few men, working in the dark, who are bringing the irresponsible and unfit to our shores—the great body of the emigrants thoroughly understand their own minds, and understand also fairly well their prospects in America. Nor is it because the poverty of the contadini here is greater to-day than ever that they leave their homeland for ours. The pay of the farm hand has risen in southern Italy already because of the emigration, and one and a half and two lire a day (forty cents) is now no uncommon recompense where a few years ago half a lira was the general wage. In a word, it is the intelligence, not the stupidity, of the peasants that is bringing them to us; and the fact that, after being a few months here, they send for their wives and children, only indicates how well justified they were in their reasonable hopes.

Rome, Italy. W. E. DAVENPORT.

Not a Conflict of Courts

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The impression seems to obtain that there was a conflict between the ruling of the

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court in the Driggs case, in the eastern district of New York, and the ruling of the court in the Dietrich case in Nebraska. Such is not the case, however, since Senator Dietrich was indicted under Section 1,781 of the Revised Statutes, which, in terms, prohibits "every member of Congress" from receiving or agreeing to receive compensation for procuring an office from the Government or any department thereof. Ex-Congressman Driggs was indicted and tried under Section 1,782 of the Revised Statutes, which provides that "no Senator, Representative, or Delegate, *after his election and during his continuance in office*," shall receive or agree to receive any compensation, directly or indirectly, for any services rendered or to be rendered to any person in relation to any proceeding, contract, claim, or controversy, etc., in which the United States is a party, or directly or indirectly interested. The fact that in Section 1,781 Congress prohibited a member of Congress from doing a certain thing, while in Section 1,782 it provided that no Senator, Representative, or Delegate, after his election and during his continuance in office, should do certain things, the court held, showed that Congress in Section 1,781 intended to prohibit the doing of certain things after a member of Congress had qualified as such, while in Section 1,782 Congress intended to prohibit the doing of certain things after the election of a member and while he continued in office. Senator Dietrich was charged with having procured a post-office for a constituent and accepting pay therefor. This transaction was alleged to have taken place after his election but prior to his qualification as Senator. He was indicted under Section 1,781, because Section 1,782 does not prohibit a member of Congress from accepting compensation for procuring an *office*. The court held that since Senator Dietrich had not qualified when the alleged transaction occurred, he was not a member of Congress, and therefore not within the inhibition of Section 1,781. Ex-Congressman Driggs was charged with having procured a *contract* or aided in procuring a contract from the Government, *after his election and during his continuance in office*, and was indicted under Section 1,782. The court held that under the provisions of that section he could be convicted even though he had not at the time he procured the contract qualified as a Representative. It will thus be seen that there was no conflict in the position of the two courts, since the indictments were predicated upon different sections of the statute.

* *

A Children's Hospital

New York City has the reputation of being cruel to its children. The street, crowded and not always clean, is their only spot for game and exercise. The school-houses have not room to admit them all. Playgrounds are with difficulty wrested from a democratic government. The enforcement of laws to protect them from toil, too early as well as too long continued, is not always effective. Yet side by side with these hardnesses, provisions for their help and welfare go quietly on. Nothing seems sadder than the sight of a sick child, and yet a visit to the babies' wards of the Post-Graduate Hospital, a building on the East Side, is anything but saddening. The sunny southwest wing of several floors is set apart for the children, and all that is latest and most approved in medicine and nursing is at the disposal of the little ailing ones, whom their mothers, frightened or incompetent, or both, and without the conditions for their proper care, bring to the hospital. In the cheerful, bright rooms the children well enough to be up are busy with games and playthings. One child, with a weight attached to his foot, which keeps him lying down flat, flourishes his arms, all that he can move, and plays horse with a rein of bells fastened to the bedside, and smiles up at the nurse passing by. The children in this ward wear pink, and the color decoration of the room is in pink; the medical ward is decorated in blue. The little babies are of course in white, and the nurses hold very tenderly the flannel bundles as they feed their tiny charges from bottles of milk. Each baby has its own individual bottle, and the diet kitchen, in which the food is prepared, is one of the most perfectly appointed in the country. Each morning the milk comes in sealed jars from a certified dairy, and is stored in a big ice-chest. In summer it is Pasteurized, but in winter is merely tested for its proportion of fat. The cream is diluted with barley-water, and the babies are fed by a percentage chart, according to their need of more or less of fat or proteid. All the glassware is sterilized, and scrupulous cleanliness attends every step. Upstairs is a roof garden, for use in summertime, where, amid vines and flower-boxes, the children play and swing in the fresh air. Opening on the roof garden is the Sunbeam play-room, to which every morning the children are brought—a room with no suggestion of a hospital about it, containing kindergarten chairs and table, and growing plants and pictures. Care does not end when the child is discharged cured, for a district visitor keeps it under supervision. Almost all the special appointments in the hospital are in loving memorial of some other child, and the visitor goes out through the stained-glass doors that open on the "babies' wards"—sacred to a child, an inscription tells, who lived from 1886 to 1890—with the feeling that here love and science are cooperating to do what lies in human power for the healing and help of needing children.

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FIFTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

CONNECTICUT MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

To the Members.

From the point of view of life insurance companies as investors the most striking incidents of the year 1903 were the great shrinkages in the nominal values or prices of the stocks of the railway systems, with a corresponding though much slighter shrinkage in the prices of their mortgage securities.

In only one point was the Connecticut Mutual affected by these events in common with all investors in securities of the highest class. The present market value of its corporate and municipal securities shrunk during the year about $770,000 on a par of $25,586,570, costing $25,906,461, with a present market value of $26,339,694. Of this $99,460.25 is in bank stocks; $729,616 in railroad stocks ($250,000 of which is held as collateral) which have changed little; the $25,077,384 of bonds are of the best class for security, and having as a rule many years to run, more favorable market conditions are likely to restore more or less of former higher prices; but meantime the apparent gross assets and surplus are just so much less than if prices had been maintained throughout the year.

General Results

The Company's experience for the year 1903 in the several other features incident to its business may be briefly stated as follows: An increase in its premium income; an increase in interest income; an increase in net assets; the usual persistence in its policies; an increase in the business in force; the same low rate of expense as in 1902; a mortality loss very considerably less than that expected, with a saving thereby of $482,510; a decrease in the holding of foreclosed real estate of $773,920.91. The details of the year's operations will be found in our financial statement.

That we have been able to maintain our traditional low rate of expense and yet keep good the amount of business in force is due to the faithful zeal of our agents for the true ideal of a mutual life insurance company; the best service for their clients at least expense to them; and this in face of the high commissions and bonuses paid to agents and rebates given to insurers by other companies, very difficult to withstand by the one or overcome in the other.

The death rate inevitably varies somewhat from year to year, and that for 1903, while very favorable, was somewhat less so than in 1902. The care with which our risks are selected and the healthful character of the limited territory in which we operate have given us a very favorable experience throughout our history and are the reasonable assurance of its continuance.

Investments

The additions and improvements upon the Home Office properties have been substantially completed. We have a building which for durability, convenience, and attractiveness as a business structure is nowhere surpassed and is proving a good investment at its cost.

Ever since the panic of 1893, and due in some part also to the flood of stocks and bonds of corporate enterprises of all sorts of quality since offered to the public on more or less attractive representations, the market for real estate has remained in the quiet state into which it then fell. During the last year, however, we sold properties that cost us $888,389; 54 of these sold at some profit; 15 sold at a loss; the net loss on these sales was $186,039.49, due principally to that incurred on three pieces which came to us from some loans made many years ago upon properties the conditions of which changed unfavorably afterward. In this connection it will be of interest to state that during the year the Insurance Commissioner of Connecticut has made the examination of this company required of him by law every four years, in the course of which he valued the foreclosed real estate remaining after deducting the sales of that on which the loss was made as above noted at $349,742.39 less than its cost. As his valuation is but an estimate

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and we have sold several pieces since at considerably more than his estimate, and as our whole experience in these matters has shown that such valuations have been no guide to the outcome, we have made no change on our books further than to take up as a possible future loss the item of $349,742.39 as a liability under the head of "Contingent real estate depreciation account," thus giving practical present effect to a loss which may or may not be incurred.

We shall pursue the same course with our present real estate which has given us good results in the past: hold until local conditions favor sales at fair prices.

The only bonds on which interest is in default are those of the City of Galveston, payment having been suspended in consequence of the flood of 1900. The city's liability is unquestioned.

Reduction of Dividends

One of the principal events for us in the past year has been the decision of your Directors that in consequence of the conditions which have been progressively developing for the past ten years and more, it was no longer expedient to draw so heavily on past accumulations of surplus in order to maintain the high scale of dividends which has obtained since 1881, and that it was expedient to reduce dividends to conform more nearly at least to the present ability to earn surplus. Since 1898 we have used current accumulations and have also drawn upon the then surplus to a very large amount in order to postpone as long as might be any reduction in dividends. The principal cause of our inability to earn as much surplus as during the years from 1881 to 1898 has been the slow but steady decrease in the rate of interest realized on investments, which would have caused a much earlier reduction of dividends, as was the case with other companies, but for the economies practiced in the management.

The circumstances of this reduction, which has been foreshadowed in our reports for several years, are set forth in full detail in a communication addressed to our policy-holders which is being placed in their hands for their full information. It is, therefore, not repeated here except to say:

"While we have always striven, and always shall strive, by every legitimate means, to make the current cost as small as possible, we must never lose sight of the fact that insurance which is not secure is not worth paying for; and that, while we strive to make it cost as little as may be, we must be certain to make it cost enough to keep it indubitably secure against all foreseen contingencies incident to a business and to the investment of funds during long periods of time."

. . . . . .

"It is proper, under the circumstances, to repeat: the Company's business continues to be conducted upon the same legitimate lines and by the same standards which have made its long history as a mutual life insurance company a record unequaled in beneficial results to its members and beneficiaries. The same conservatism, prudence, and unequaled economy are maintained; and its condition warrants the assertion that it will be able to utilize to the full all future conditions favorable to the earning of surplus; while in the distribution of it your Directors will have always in view the twofold purpose: to make the annual payments of policy-holders as small as possible, and, in any event, to carefully and certainly maintain that strength which has always been one of its distinctive features."

Effect of Interest

In this connection it may be well to call attention to the fact that any change in the average rate of interest takes effect much more slowly in a life insurance company than in a bank. The latter, having to be prepared for the contingency of sudden and great demands from its depositors, keeps its assets in short-time paper, which, being frequently changed at current rates, speedily reflects their changes. The life insurance company—if managed on sound lines—is subject to no such contingency, and is able to secure the best results by long-time investments; so that its assets as a body change but slowly and can reflect only the general tendency of rates over long periods. The effect of the downward tendency, which we foresaw in 1882, has come but slowly to its present development; and it finds us prepared with a reserve some $3,000,000 greater than it would have been had we continued to take new business on the old basis, as others did.

The present surplus by our own higher standard of solvency is $4,629,812.55, after allowing the contingent depreciation item of $349,742 already mentioned.

By the usual 4 per cent. standard of solvency it is about $3,000,000 greater, or say $7,500,000.

Condensed History

It is a satisfaction again to call your attention to yearly growing exhibit of the unique

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total results of the Company's operations for fifty-eight years:

1846—1903

Received:	
For premiums	$227,347,886.89
For interest	94,594,772.79
For rents	9,887,073.16
Balance profit and loss	1,015,713.44
	$332,845,446.28
Total receipts	
It has paid death claims for	$118,148,473.66
Endowments and annuities for	16,144,803.90
For surrendered Policies	27,771,246.49
For Dividends	65,054,360.11
A total returned to policy-holders or their beneficiaries, being 99.90 per cent. of the entire premiums received	$227,118,894.16
It has paid for Expenses	30,893,826.78
Taxes	11,621,196.45
Total expenditures	269,633,917.39
Balances net assets, January 1, 1904	$63,211,528.89
It has additional assets (see Statement)	1,722,018.34
Total assets	$64,933,547.23

Of the $227,347,886.89 which The Connecticut Mutual has received from its policy-holders, it has returned to them or paid to their beneficiaries $227,118,894.16, or 99.90 per cent. What it has so paid back and what it still holds as security for policy contracts aggregates $292,052,441.39, or 128.46 per cent. of its receipts from policy-holders. This has been done at an expense ratio of only 9.28 per cent. of the total receipts.

Nature of Present Competition

The competition for public favor in life insurance continues to travel largely on three distinct abnormal lines: First, a postponement of all dividends for ten to twenty years, whereby the effect of extravagant expense is concealed till the end of the period, and whereby the savings on the premiums and reserves of those who drop out in the meantime (expected to be about two-thirds of the whole in twenty years) are to be divided among those only who remain through; a speculation for the few lucky at the expense of the many unlucky "mutual" policy-holders:

Second, by the so-called incontestable policy, which puts upon the honest policy-holder the payment of the loss on the dishonest one, to whom alone such a feature would presumably be attractive:

Third, by giving every policy-holder by way of an "annual cash value" the right to withdraw his contribution to the reserves in any year, which thus gives all the policy-holders the right to demand all the reserves in any year to the complete destruction of the Company; and this demand is a first lien on all the assets and a first obligation on the part of the Company, to which the insurance feature is a mere temporary and easily defeasible incident. The premiums paid in ostensibly for life insurance have a "string" to them, to be used at will, which converts the Company into an actual Savings Bank, without the interest on deposits which makes it to the personal advantage of the depositor not to withdraw his deposits under ordinary circumstances; and with the further and great difference, that whatever one deposits in the bank suffers no subtraction from its face, and receives in addition all the interest earned less a relatively slight expense account, while the premiums paid to the life insurance company must annually contribute to losses and to relatively heavy expenses; so that the reserve which can be withdrawn is as a rule much smaller than the sum of the premiums he has paid in, and his privilege costs him out of all decent proportion.

And not the least mischief of this practice is the fact that in reality and in the resulting attitude of mind of the insured it subordinates the duty of protection for which alone life insurance exists and without which it would never be used and could never have been conceived to the changing personal interests of him on whom that duty constantly rests. Under a multitude of conditions he is frequently tempted to use for himself the fund which alone secures that protection to others which is still his duty, and his most serious duty, because of their necessity and their constant danger.

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He no longer regards his payments as a fund permanently withdrawn from the exigencies of his business and sacredly devoted to the performance of his unselfish office toward his own. His contract at once and always prefers his claim to theirs.

And it will not be many years before the great mass of the life insurance business of the country will stand on this basis, its continuance and not only the welfare but the existence of the companies contingent on the non-exercise of the right of withdrawal of any and all funds at will.

In the midst of this sort of competition, which brings an enormous business but with enormous waste, at an expense which is as reckless as it is unnecessary, and which contradicts every principle and method by which proper and adequate results as to the security of contracts, the cost of insurance, equity between members, and the integrity of the Company itself can be assured, The Connecticut Mutual holds steadfast to the truth which, be it never so widely or lightly disregarded, can never be denied, that the paramount purpose of life insurance, the one and only peculiar service it is constructed and fitted to render, which it alone can render, and the only one worth its necessary cost even at a minimum, and the one spring of its high motive, is "to defend and provide for" those whose welfare depends on the continuance of one's life and who must suffer in all their future by its loss; that Mutual Life Insurance is the equal co-operation in good faith of those on whom rests the sacred privilege and duty to protect, to the end that the needed protection may be most certainly and effectively given, and that by such equal co-operation the cost to each may be made as small as possible; that the Company which undertakes to become the instrument of such co-operation is therefore bound to shape its every plan and practice to conform to those conditions which enable it to fulfill those ends in the highest degree and with the greatest certainty in that far future to which its contracts extend.

That beneficent function of Mutual Life Insurance, in that view of its intrinsic morality, The Connecticut Mutual has fulfilled with an unequaled success for fifty-eight years; and it moves toward its future of beneficent uses adequately prepared.

Respectfully submitted,

JACOB L. GREENE,
President.

Hartford, January 25, 1904.

58th Annual Statement

of the

CONNECTICUT MUTUAL
LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

Of Hartford, Conn.

NET ASSETS, January 1, 1903,		$63,182,791.32
RECEIVED IN 1903.		
For Premiums,	$5,325,082.06	
For Interest and Rents,	2,936,543.85	
		8,261,625.91
		$71,444,417.23
DISBURSED IN 1903.		
For claims by death, matured endowments, and annuities,	$4,707,279.42	
Surplus returned to policy-holders,	1,359,811.44	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies,	579,254.61	
TOTAL TO POLICY-HOLDERS,	$6,646,345.47	
Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' Fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, all other Expenses,	998,312.11	
TAXES,	422,645.28	
Profit and Loss,	165,585.48	
		8,232,888.34
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1903,		$63,211,528.89
SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.		
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien,		$24,836,415.06
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds,		30,000.00
Premium Notes on Policies in Force,		577,521.21
Cost of Home Office Property,		1,913,700.50
Cost of Real Estate owned by Company,		9,337,910.10
Cost of Bonds,		25,077,384.69
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks,		829,076.25
Cash in Banks,		608,928.69
Bills receivable,		482.06
Agents' Debit Balances,		110.33
		$63,211,528.89
ADD		
Interest due and accrued,	$916,909.54	
Rents due and accrued,	13,143.55	
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost,	433,232.81	
Net uncollected and deferred premiums,	358,732.44	
	$1,722,018.34	
Less Bills Receivable and Agents' Debit Balances,	592.39	
		$1,721,425.95
ADMITTED ASSETS, December 31, 1903,		$64,932,954.84
LIABILITIES:		
Amount required to re-insure all outstanding Policies, net, Company's standard,	$57,913,313.00	
All other liabilities,	2,389,829.29	
		$60,303,142.29
SURPLUS,		$4,629,812.55
Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1903,		12.08 per cent.
Policies in force Dec. 31, 1903, 70,150, insuring,		$166,504,486.00

JACOB L. GREENE, President.
JOHN M. TAYLOR, Vice-Prest.
HERBERT H. WHITE, Secretary.
DANIEL H. WELLS, Actuary.

THEODORE E. LANE, General Agent,
Boreel Building, 115 Broadway,
NEW YORK CITY

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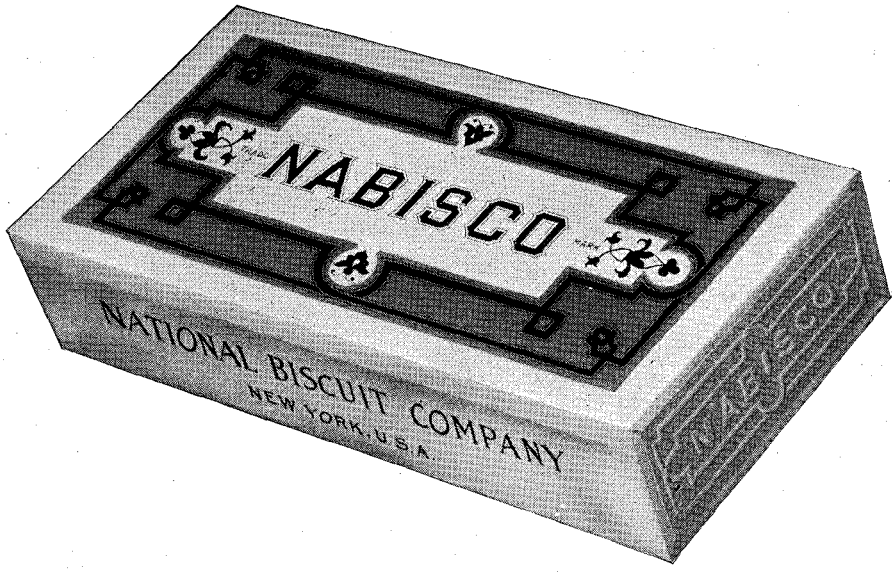

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SUGAR WAFERS

A Dessert creation by The National Biscuit Company. Like fairy sandwiches in their airy lightness—like a poem in their charming delicacy. Composed of two thin strips of indescribable goodness above and below a luscious cream of either Lemon, Orange, Chocolate, Vanilla, Strawberry, Raspberry or Mint. Truly a harmonizing accompaniment for any ice or beverage

SUGGESTIONS

¶ With Lemon Ice or Grape Fruit Sherbet,
serve Lemon Nabisco Sugar Wafers

¶ With Roman Punch or Marmalade,
serve Orange Nabisco Sugar Wafers

¶ With any kind of Cream or Frozen Fruit, with Coffee, Tea, or Vintage, serve Nabisco Sugar Wafers in the flavors of your choice

NATIONAL BISCUIT COMPANY

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THE OUTLOOK WANT DEPARTMENT

is of great assistance to Outlook readers seeking *Positions* or *Business Opportunities*, or looking for *Help* in all the better grades. An advertisement in The Outlook Want Department is almost certain to bring results. *The rate for notices in this Department is* Five Cents *for each word or initial, address included. Orders should be sent (with remittance) at least ten days prior to publication.*

TEACHER—Woman in college position desires change. Ph.D., Sociology, Economics, History; ten years college teaching, also executive, social, and business experience; trained musician, good health. Location preferred west of Rocky Mountains. coeducational institution. Salary $1,800. Address No. 8,017, The Outlook.

I can place you at once in a good position if you are a competent man with business training. R. S. Mighill, 1 Union Sq., New York.

A good position is always open for a competent man. His difficulty is to find it. We have openings for high-grade men in all capacities—Executive, Technical, and Clerical—paying from $1,000 to $10,000 a year. "Right places for right men. Right men for right places." Write for plan and booklet. Hapgoods (Inc.), Suite 511, 309 Broadway, New York.

NEW Haven, Conn.—For sale or to lease, thirteen-room brick-and-stucco house, two and a half blocks from Yale University. City water, gas, furnace, bath-room. Suitable for *boarding-house or family with son in college.* Address R. D. T. No. 8,051, The Outlook.

BRYN Mawr graduate, aged 33, wishes to earn trip abroad as companion. No. 8,083, The Outlook.

AN unusual opportunity for a person of experience in teaching and school management to purchase a well established school near New York City. For particulars address E. H., No. 8,085, The Outlook.

GAME of pronunciation. Fifty cents. Send stamp for information. Charles Harris, Oxford, Mass.

WANTED—In Christian family, by refined American Protestant, position as companion, attendant to elderly lady or invalid. No. 8,213, The Outlook.

WANTED—Cashier or correspondent who can loan $1,000 to $10,000 on absolute security. Book Publisher, No. 8,205, Outlook.

A *cultured German lady, understanding* French, has traveled abroad as chaperon or traveling companion. Highest testimonials. Address Miss S., Edwin H. Low's Steamship Agency, 1123 Broadway, New York.

PARSIFAL.—From point of view given in Outlook—developed in story and music. Address W., 363 *Jefferson Ave., Brooklyn*, N. Y.

WANTED—Position as private secretary or stenographer; thoroughly competent young woman. C. H., 306 East Fourth St., Cincinnati.

FAMILIES and institutions in need of housekeepers, matrons, mother's helpers, companions, etc., address Miss Richards, 48 Lloyd Ave., Providence, R. I.

GRAHAM'S system of Shorthand is rapid and legible and quickly learned, under my methods, by correspondence. Miss Brigham, 9 Park St., Boston.

CORRESPONDING secretary wanted in every city and town in United States not yet represented. Educational institution. Spare time only. State fully occupation, age, school training, time available, references. Address No. 8,057, The Outlook.

WANTED—A limited number of active, educated men of business ability. Definite guarantee basis. Apply at once. Give age, *qualifications, references*. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

WANTED—Correspondence with a woman, college graduate, experienced in teaching and in school management. Candidate must be attractive, of Christian ideals, well-balanced, animated. State age, educational advantages, specialties in teaching, experience, church connection. Address No. 8,065, The Outlook.

A lady of experience wishes to hear of a suburb near New York where a good, progressive school is desired. No. 7,991, The Outlook.

GRADUATE of Princeton University, now in medical school, desires position as tutor during the coming summer. No. 8,157, The Outlook.

YOUNG lady, holding honorary degree of the New York State Library School, desires position as librarian of small public or private library. Several years' experience. Address No. 8,167, The Outlook.

CHEAP and beautiful Mexican drawn work. P. O. Box 423, Brownsville, Texas.

COMPANION.—Cultured woman of 30, familiar with *French*, Italian, and *some* German, desires position as traveling companion during heated term; European or American trip. No 8,173, The Outlook.

A domestic science graduate desires a position as housekeeper in either school or private institution. Good references. Experienced. No. 8,219, *The Outlook.*

WANTED—A position as governess for young children by a young woman of education, with a knowledge of French and elocution. Best references. Address No. 8,217, The Outlook.

A traveler, experienced in book trade, can hear of opportunity for employment during spring, carrying first-class line. Address immediately No. 8,171, The Outlook.

SUMMER home with board desired by Protestant family of five adults (two daughters, one son) in non-malarial locality, about thirty minutes from Manhattan Borough. References exchanged. No. 8,175, The Outlook.

MANAGER wanted for half interest in well-established, high-grade business; $5,000; salary $50 a week. Address S. Henry, 3 Union Square, New York City.

YOUNG lady, Canadian, desires position as teacher of young children. Good musical education. Address Miss Campbell, 215 St. Patrick Street, Toronto, Canada.

STENOGRAPHER and bookkeeper; competent and experienced business woman desires responsible position in office of refined mountain hotel. References. No 8,191, The Outlook.

PARSIFAL.—I am making many engagements for my stereopticon lecture, "Parsifal and the Holy Grail." Exceptionally beautiful. Fine for Lenten season. Write for terms. Rev. Henry Rose, Newark, N. J.

A lady, having gone South to live, wishes to dispose of place near N. Y. Now rented to good tenants. The Woodley, Room 703, Washington, D. C.

PROOFREADING—Young woman, graduate of Philadelphia Home Correspondence School, desires permanent position as proofreader in Philadelphia publishing house. No. 8,189, The Outlook.

TEACHERS, *Principals, wanted for* constantly occurring vacancies and for fall 1904. Now is the time to send for booklet. Dixon Teachers Bureau, 1420 Chestnut, Philadelphia.

PRIVATE Secretary.—A graduate of Smith College desires position. Thorough *English equipment. May be interviewed.* Address Woman's Exchange, 334 Madison Ave., N. Y. City.

HOUSEKEEPER.—Lady of Christian character, middle-aged (widow), vivacious and cheerful, would care for gentleman's home. Congenial surroundings more essential than salary. *Please give particulars.* Address E., No. 8,211, The Outlook.

AN experienced teacher will give daily lessons in languages and music for refined home; city or country. New York references. Box 300, Walton, N. Y.

COUNTRY PROPERTY FOR SALE AND TO RENT

I CAN SELL YOUR Real Estate

no matter where it is or what it is worth. Send description, state price, and learn how. If you want to buy any kind of a property anywhere in the United States tell me your requirements. I will guarantee to fill them promptly and satisfactorily.

W. M. OSTRANDER,
339 North American Bldg., Philadelphia.

WHITE MT. COTTAGE, 12 rooms, fully furnished. Electric light, long distance telephone, open plumbing; spring water running into building; 17 acres, barn, garden; convenient to station, N. Y. and Boston express trains; good market. Address Miss C. E. MASON, Tarrytown-on-Hudson, N. Y.

GOOD INVESTMENT FARM of about 200 acres, 54 miles east of Kansas City, Mo., near R. R. and good towns. Coal and fruits and good soil. *Investment safe for* 8 per cent. or more. Price $15,000. References given and required. Address J. L. WARREN, Higginsville, Mo., for particulars.

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Farms, Residences, Cottages, Hotels, Stores, etc., etc. **Catalog Free.**
Owners send details of your property.
PHILLIPS & WELLS, 93 Tribune Building, N.Y.

FOR SALE in Beverly, Mass.

Directly on the water, where there is a beach for bathing, a very attractive place of about 4 acres, with fine, large shade trees and tennis court. The house is in excellent condition, with modern plumbing, and well adapted for a winter residence, if desired. The stable will accommodate 5 horses, and there is ample carriage room attached.

Apply to MEREDITH & GREW
15 Congress St. Boston, Mass.

CASCO BAY, MAINE

For Sale, a FURNISHED COTTAGE of nine rooms. Address Rev. J. M. McGANN, Mattapan, Mass.

FOR SALE

Summer cottage in first-class order, furnished or unfurnished, with half acre of land. Convenient to hotel, on Shepard Hill, overlooking Asquam Lake, Holderness, New Hampshire. Contains four bedrooms, parlor, dining-room, and kitchen, running water, broad piazzas; unsurpassed view; boat house and beach rights. For further particulars address CHARLES E. HOTCHKISS,
32 Nassau St., New York.

High, Dry—Lakeville, Litchfield County, Connecticut

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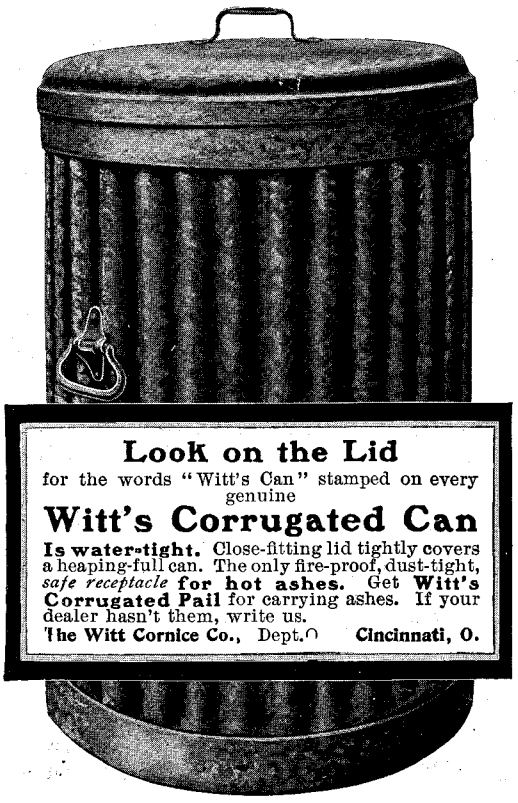

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